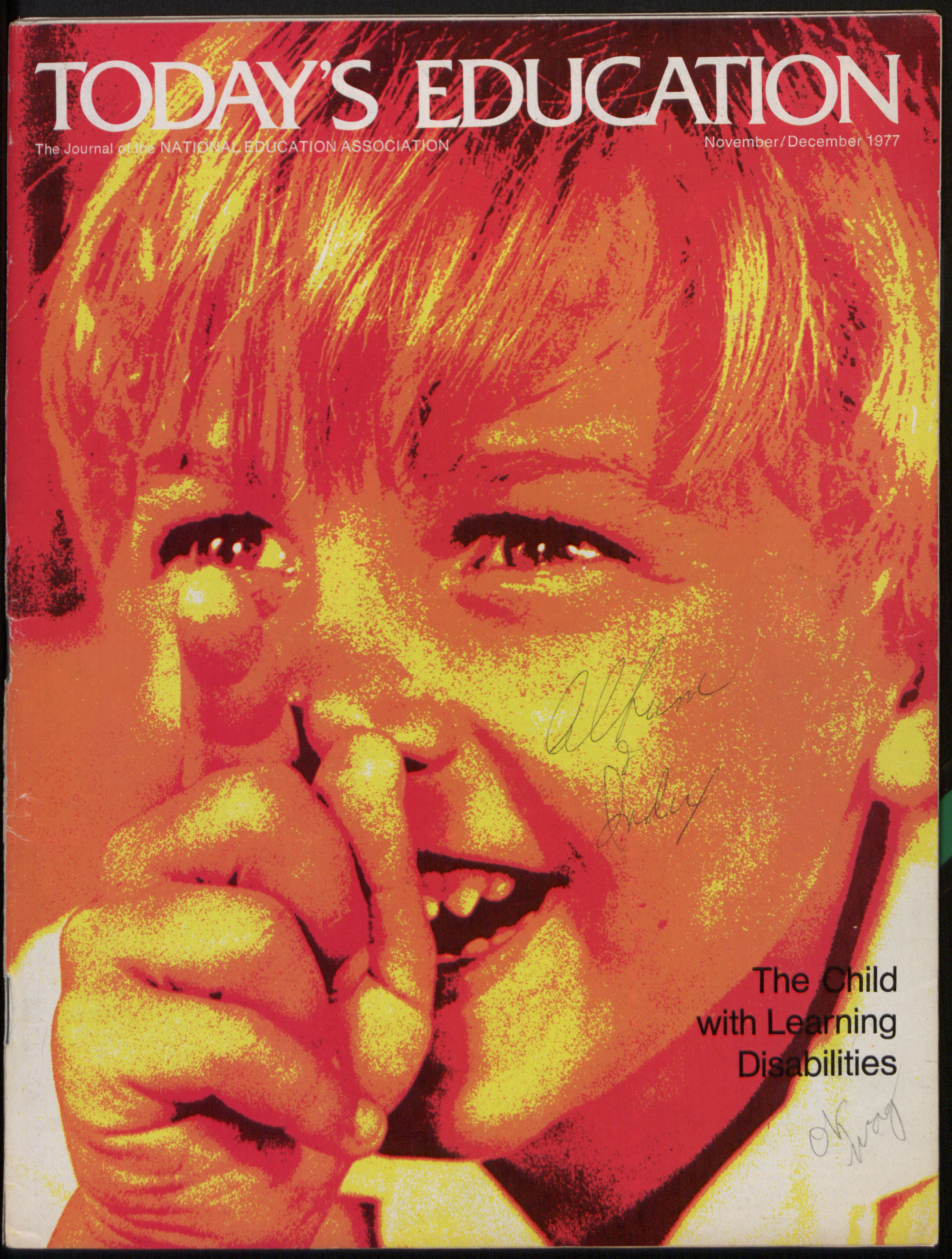
TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

November/December 1977



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1

CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 31

In This Issue

Our cover model symbolizes a second grader with learning disabilities. (Actually, our model tells us he is an excellent student with *no* disabilities!)

An LD second-grader's story is told in the first article in the seven-article, 20-page special feature on learning disabilities.

Dean is described in the article as an extremely restless little boy whose "sturdy body bounced into and off people and things indiscriminately; his blue eyes flitted constantly over the classroom; his freckled nose was poked into everything."

If you have one or more Deans in your classes, the LD program and teaching techniques that helped him will be of interest to you.

The LD feature also includes the following articles:

- "Learning Disabilities . . . a Puzzlement." An overview of the field of learning disabilities. What does the term mean, what are the causes of LD, and what is being done to help LD students?
- "Teaching LD Adolescents." How an eighth grade English teacher helps several LD students in her regular classroom. What are their characteristics and what techniques does she use to reach them?
- "Helping Teachers Teach the LD Student." A description of appropriate in-service education for classroom teachers who are working with handicapped students for the first time this fall.
- "PL 94-142—Getting the Money To Make It Work." The story of the legal and legislative steps taken to ensure a better education for handicapped children and children with learning disabilities.
- "What the Laws and Regulations Require." Highlights of the final regulations for PL 94-142. Also definitions used in the regulations and some of the general criteria for state and local administration of the program. What must a state do to receive funds?
- "How Will the New Law Affect Teachers?" A summary of the effects of PL 94-142 on regular classroom teachers and a discussion of the best and worst features of the new law.

Another highlight of this issue is a report on the annual Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. The answers to some of the poll's questions are summarized in the report, titled "What Does the Public Think of the Schools?" For example—

- *Overall ratings of the public schools.* Among all respondents, a significant drop since 1974, but ratings given by parents who have children now enrolled in public schools show no decline since last year. In fact, 54 percent of this group give the schools an A or B rating compared with 50 percent in 1976.
- *Major problems confronting the schools.* 1. Lack of discipline. 2. Integration/segregation/busing. 3. Lack of proper financial support.
- *Good things about local schools.* 1. Curriculum. 2. Teachers. 3. Extracurricular activities.
- *Tenure.* Among the 28 percent who can define tenure as it applies to teaching jobs, the majority opposes it.
- *Back-to-basics movement.* The definition of the basics that most of the public accepts equates the movement with a return to the traditional "three R's." Those familiar with the term express overwhelming approval of the movement.
- *Early graduation from high school.* Wide support is shown for permitting some high school students to graduate early if they meet graduation requirements.
- *College courses in high schools.* This proposal also wins support.
- *Absenteeism.* A slight majority votes for bringing parents into court if their children are often truant.
- *Schools in small communities.* Most people believe that education in small communities today is better than in large cities.
- *Closing schools in midwinter to save energy.* The majority opposes the proposal—56 percent to 36 percent.
- *Local control of federal programs.* The nation's adults vote two-to-one for giving local school authorities jurisdiction on how the money is to be spent to carry out federal programs locally.
- *Parent/teacher conferences.* During an average period of eight school months, 3 out of 5 parents will talk to teachers about the progress of their children. And, on the average, these parents during a period of eight months will hold two such meetings.
- *Time children spend on TV, homework, reading.* According to their parents, children 12 or younger spend about two hours a day watching TV, 30 minutes reading (not schoolwork), and 45 minutes doing homework. Children 13 or older spend about two hours watching TV, 30 minutes reading (not schoolwork), and one hour doing homework. The answers to a related question indicate that parents are most likely to limit TV viewing time when their children are under 13.
- *Children's safety.* A relatively high percentage of parents (1 in 4) fear for the physical safety of their children in school, and 28 percent fear for their children's safety in their own neighborhoods.

Like the Gallup poll, *Today's Education* surveys also consistently indicate that discipline is a major concern of teachers as well as nonteachers. Therefore, in this issue, we present a discipline article by William Glasser titled "10 Steps to Good Discipline."

Dr. Glasser describes his constructive, no-nonsense, nonpunitive method of dealing with discipline problems—a 10-step approach based on what he calls Reality Therapy.

Before presenting his 10 steps in some detail, he defines Reality Therapy as being based on eight concepts:

- *Be personal.* "I care enough about you to be involved, to be your friend."
- *Refer to present behavior.* "What are you doing right now?"
- *Stress value judgments.* "Is what you're doing helping you?"
- *Plan.* Work with students to formulate alternatives.
- *Be committed.* Build in a way to check back, follow up.
- *Don't accept excuses.* "When do you think you can do this?"
- *Do not punish.* Set rules and sanctions with the students.
- *Never give up.* Hang in there longer than the student expects.

Eight other articles and 14 continuing features appear in this issue. We hope you will find them helpful as well as interesting. Then please let us know how we can make the next issue even more helpful and interesting to you.

—WAG.

TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

November-December 1977, Volume 66, Number 4

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 8

Editorial

Declining SAT Scores

The recent report of the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB) on declining Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores among high school students has done an excellent job in highlighting some of the crushing problems facing students, parents, and teachers—all of whom have a high stake in the future of the nation's public schools. The National Education Association shares concern with CEEB over the seriousness of these problems. No one is more aware of them than teachers themselves.

Teachers believe in high standards for their students. We also know that for teachers to teach, for learning to take place, students must be evaluated. But we believe strongly that learning must be evaluated in a variety of ways.

Each year, nevertheless, 1 million graduating seniors—about a quarter of their age cohort—will have prepared for the rite of passage from high school to college by taking the SAT.

For the past 14 years, SAT scores have dropped steadily, after remaining relatively stable during the preceding decade. Verbal scores have dropped 49 points, from 478 in 1963 to 429 in 1977; mathematics scores, 32 points, from 502 to 470. The question is, Why?

This fall the College Entrance Examination Board published the findings of a two-year study commissioned to investigate the causes of the declining scores. The study was conducted by an advisory panel of 21 people chaired by former Secretary of Labor Willard Wirtz. It was sponsored and funded by CEEB and by the Educational Testing Service (ETS)—the General Motors of the testing industry and sole producer of the SAT. (CEEB sponsors the SAT; ETS develops and administers it.)

The final report, entitled *On Further Examination,* is impressive, broad-ranging, and written in immaculate prose. Its findings represent a comprehensive analysis of social and educational change from 1963 to 1977. Many of the conclusions reflect conditions in schools and society that teachers have known first-hand for years.

Despite its studied fairness, the report presents several problems. The panel points with pride to the SAT, which was designed in 1941 as an "unchanging measurement" to predict student performance in college. (Although specific test items change from year to year, the SAT remains essentially the same.) As the report itself documents, society and schools have changed drastically since 1963—and, in my opinion, certainly even more since 1941—but not the SAT. Is it not time to look at the test as well as the test results?

By JOHN RYOR
President, NEA.

Before discussing the other problems with the report, let's look at the report findings.

The report states that the decline has developed in "two distinct stages, characterized by significantly different balances of . . . different causal factors."

In the first stage, 1963 to about 1970, the report says, as much as three-quarters of the decline was caused by the "notable extension and expansion of educational opportunity in the United States" during that period. This statement refers to sharp increases in the proportions of students taking the test who came from groups that have always registered substantially lower-than-average scores on the test—students from families with lower socioeconomic status, minorities, and women (whose average scores on the mathematical portion of the test, but not on the verbal, have been lower than men's).

In the second stage of the decline, after about 1970, there were fewer changes in the demographic distribution of the SAT takers. During this time, the decline in scores swept across the board: scores of traditionally higher-scoring students dropped, and those of traditionally lower-scoring students fell even lower.

The panel attributes three-fourths of the decline in this period to the impact of "pervasive" social forces, whose effects it cannot document precisely. It does, however, cite six sets of developments that may have affected this decline:

- Characterizing the period of sharpest decline in scores (1972-75) and the years immediately before this decline as a "decade of distraction," the panel says that "there is simply no way of knowing how much the trauma between 1967 and 1975 of coincident divisive war, . . . political assassination, . . . burning cities, and the corruption of national leadership affected the motivation of the young people . . . and whether there was consequent effect on their college entrance examination scores." The report conjectures that "this probably made quite a difference."
- The panel also points to changes during this period in the role of the family in the educational process, noting particularly the increase in the number of children living in homes in which two parents are not present. Although lacking definitive evidence on this point, the panel concludes that the effect of these changes is negative.
- Noting that "by age 16 most children have spent between 10,000 and 15,000 hours watching television, more time than they have spent in school," the panel surmises that this activity distracts students from doing homework, competes with schooling in other ways, and has contributed to the decline in SAT score averages.
- "There has been a significant dispersal of learning activities and emphasis in the schools, reflected particu-

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By Alvin Tresselt, Dean of Faculty

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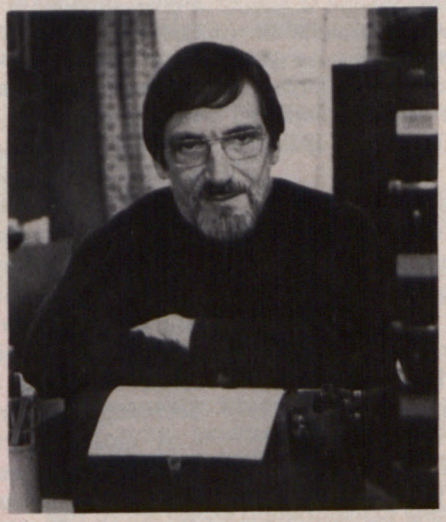

Alvin Tresselt was executive editor of Parent's Magazine Press, the first editor of *Humpty Dumpty's Magazine for Children*, and has served on the board of the Author's Guild. He is now Dean of Faculty at The Institute of Children's Literature.

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Editorial

(continued)

larly in the adding of many elective courses and a reduction in the number of courses that all students . . . are required to take." The panel says, however, that a "broadside condemnation" of electives is not the solution; it recommends instead "restoring the tradition of critical reading and careful writing."

- The report cites "clearly observable evidence of diminished seriousness of purpose and attention to mastery of skills and knowledge . . . in the schools, the home, and society generally." It points to the condoning of excessive absenteeism, grade inflation, automatic promotion from grade to grade, less homework, and easier textbooks.
- "There has been an apparent marked diminution," the panel finds, "in young people's learning motivation, at least as it appears to be related, directly and indirectly, to their performance on college entrance examinations."

The report does not fault teachers. In fact, the panel shows some understanding of their difficult situation. At the CEEB press conference to announce the findings, Harold Howe II, panel member and former U.S. Commissioner of Education, said there is evidence that the job of teaching is tougher today than ever before. The report's discussion of teachers is mainly descriptive, noting on the one hand a drop in the average years of experience of elementary school teachers, but pointing on the other to an increase in teachers' average educational levels. It also refers to a decrease in pupil-teacher ratios and cites an increase in teaching salaries.

The panel concludes that teachers' and school administrators' responsibility for what has happened "centers in their having made more concessions because of changing circumstances and demands . . . than has been good for anybody involved. But this becomes a hard question of how much choice they have had and of how the demands of a changing student clientele are best met."

How are the demands of a changing student clientele best met as they make the transition from high school to college? By a standardized multiple-choice test, designed in 1941 and remaining virtually unchanged, rigorously guarding the gates to the nation's colleges? The NEA does not think so. While the nation endures a "decade of distraction," the SAT sails confidently into the past.

In fairness to the panel, it must be said that they were not unaware of this issue. While they defend the SAT rigorously on its merits as a predictor of academic college performance, they recognize that high school grades are even more valid predictors. They also acknowledge current broader criticisms of the SAT related to common misuses and abuses of the scores. In January 1977, CEEB issued a set of guidelines for avoiding misuse of the scores as measures of the effectiveness of elementary and secondary education in general. The scores are, nevertheless, often used erroneously as exclusive measurements of individual or institutional quality. The report notes that when this occurs, "a very real 'relevancy' issue arises."

A far more serious consequence of test misuse is that it may elicit the cry for "back to basics." The report itself is provoking this kind of misuse. When the public and state legislatures look at it, they may see only one issue—lower test scores. They may not heed the panel's thoughtful advice to schools not to become "more rigid, . . . more rejective, more uniform." They may not pay attention to the panel's observation that "the record may suggest as much about youth's inherent resiliency and the resourcefulness of the formal educational process under unusual circumstances as about deterioration in either personal or institutional fibers. We have wondered sometimes in the course of our inquiry why the score declines haven't been larger."

The panel believes that there is "almost certainly" some causal relationship between the shift from traditional courses to electives and the decline in the SAT verbal scores. But despite its warning against "oversimplistic interpretation of this finding," the knee-jerk response to declining test scores may be back to basics.

A most important point is that virtually no one is addressing the question of the relationship between the SAT test and curriculum as it exists in 16,500 school districts in the United States. The problem does not lie in identifying and explaining causes for the drop in SAT scores; the committee did that and did it well. A fundamental value question must be answered: Should a SAT test which hasn't changed significantly in 36 years be allowed to become a major determinant of school curriculum?

If legislatures and school boards rush to unfounded judgments about their own curriculums (based on SAT scores), they will be giving assent to the SAT as the basis for a national standard.

In the final analysis, it might be in the best interests of public education to have some standards national in scope, but who sets those standards should be a subject of thoughtful decision. As things stand, curriculum is a primary province of thousands of local school boards. Who's to say that a few experts in the testing industry are better able to determine curriculum needs?

And so we come full circle to the SAT test itself. "The panel accordingly commends further inquiry by the Board and ETS into the function of tests at this critical passage point. . . . The purpose of such inquiry would be to identify and put in appropriate priority whatever can be distilled from current national concerns about the society's educational values, and then to evaluate the traditional tests in the light of that determination."

There is just one more problem. There is no time frame, no target date, no deadline. The need for urgency at the tranquil ETS campus in Princeton, New Jersey, is not the same as in the high schools of Baltimore and Indianapolis. While ETS moves toward further inquiry, hundreds of thousands of students are being measured on archaic scales and found wanting. □

Copies of the report may be ordered from College Board Publication Orders, Box 2815, Princeton, NJ 08540. Price is $4.

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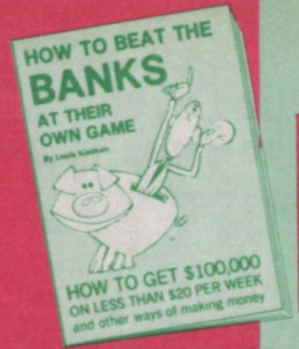

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Trends

School Population Declines Slightly

The number of students in the United States declined this fall to 60.3 million from a total of 60.6 million in fall 1976, according to the Back-to-School Forecast of HEW's National Center for Education Statistics. The greatest decline, 1.5 percent, dropped the K-8 total from 33.8 to 33.3 million students, while the number of high school students, which peaked at 15.8 million in 1976, fell less than 1 percent to 15.7 million. At the same time, the number of people in college rose from 11 to 11.3 million.

The changes in faculty population reflected these trends. The number of elementary and secondary teachers fell slightly, to 2.4 million, while that of college teachers rose by 3 percent, to 700,000.

Compared to last year, total education expenditures in 1977-78 are expected to rise by $12 billion to $144 billion. Education is the major occupation or—in the case of students—preoccupation of about 3 Americans in every 10: 63.7 million people altogether.

Who Is the Classroom Teacher?

Teachers in 1976 were younger than ever before in recent history (their median age was 33), according to *Status of the American Public School Teacher, 1975-76,* compiled by NEA Research. Less than 1 percent of teachers in 1975 lacked a bachelor's degree, and 37 percent had a master's degree or six years of college. Only 14 percent of the teachers—half the 1961 percentage—had 20 or more years of service. Only 6 in 10 planned to remain in teaching until retirement.

In 1976, only 37.5 percent said they certainly would become teachers if they had the choice to make over again. Teachers said negative student attitude and discipline, incompetent administration, and heavy work load hindered them most in rendering their best service.

Collective Bargaining Concerns School Boards Most

Collective bargaining is the most common concern of the nation's school boards and school administrators, according to the report of a survey taken at the National School Boards Association's 1976 convention.

The report, *Collective Bargaining—Practices and Attitudes of School Management,* attributes the concern to the time that negotiation requires and to three possible results:

- Management may be overpowered
- Settlements may require an increase in local taxes
- A larger share of school funds will be diverted from services for students to teacher salaries and benefits.

Respondents from districts that do not bargain were more negative than those from districts that do.

Peer Group Greatest Influence on Delinquency, Study Finds

Peer-group pressure is the single most important factor in juvenile delinquent behavior, concludes a six-year study by the Illinois Department of Mental Health.

Survey team members say that most of the supposed influences—sex, race, social class, broken home, inner-city residence—have relatively little influence and that the family is most influential in controlling only less serious acts like truancy, incorrigibility, and running away. The team interviewed some 3,000 teenagers and nearly 2,000 of their parents.

Number of Schoolchildren Should Climb After 1984

The number of children from five to 17 years old will decline each year until 1984, when a new era of moderate population increases, projected to continue to 1998, will begin. This prediction comes from an NEA Research report, *Population Trends and Their Implications for Association Planning.* The upturn reflects the projected increase in annual births each year from 1977 until 1986. In 1980, the population 18 to 21 years old will begin a period of declines lasting until 1994.

Actual changes in different states will vary widely, and teacher reductions are not expected to be so severe as the declines in school-age population.

National Diffusion Network Spreads News of Successful Programs

A network funded by the U.S. Office of Education links schools with exemplary programs and schools that want such programs through agencies that bring them together. The 61 linking agencies, called State Facilitators, are responsible for getting information to school district officials about successful education programs and putting any school that's interested in a program in touch with the school that developed it. The 72 developer schools will help any interested school adopt their programs.

Teenagers Have New Standards for Career Choice

Job security and congenial colleagues are still qualities many teenagers want in their future occupations. So says the Opinion Research Corporation on the basis of interviews of nationwide probability samples in 1973 and 1977. Making money and the opportunity to travel are now rated equally important, however.

Teenagers are now less interested than before in benefits and being in a growing field as well as in making a contribution to society, opportunity for further education, or opportunity for advancement.

NAEP Assesses Art Skills

A 1974-75 survey of art skills by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) was the first comprehensive attempt to measure student achievement in art. The study results, presented this year, suggest that performance in art and the skills necessary for successful artistic achievement, like other academic skills, can be learned.

Results of the study show a steady progression of achievement from ages nine to 13 and 13 to 17 in measurable aspects like the acquisition and application of knowledge, skills, rules, and standards.

Project Tests Energy-Saving Methods in Schools

Since last summer, 10 elementary schools have been sites of an energy-conservation project sponsored by the Department of Energy and carried out by the American Association of School Administrators. The project will keep track of any change in energy consumption. Energy-saving measures like added insulation, boiler improvements, and changes in ventilation and lighting systems are expected to reduce the schools' energy use by an average of about 50 percent.

The rise in per-pupil energy costs

from less than $20 in 1972-73 to nearly $38 in 1975-76 has had a serious effect on school budgets.

WCOTP Meets in Nigeria

The 1977 Assembly of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP) met in Lagos, Nigeria, last summer. NEA President John Ryor was reelected to the WCOTP executive committee.

The conference's theme was "Compulsory Education: Social Expectations." Assembly statements emphasized the importance in compulsory education of the rights of children, equality of opportunity, preservation of cultural heritages, and education in human rights and international understanding. The Assembly heard a report on Nigeria's compulsory education system, begun in 1976.

Delegates also discussed the school and the "new economic order" (between developed and developing countries) as well as the proposed International Labor Conference positions on the freedom of association and rights of negotiation of public employees.

Professors Feel Money Isn't All

"The college professor tends to place top value on his or her discipline or profession," according to a Chicago management consultant who specializes in university compensation programs. "Income is a secondary concern, with loyalty to [his or her] school trailing far behind." From what the consultant said, it would appear that faculty members tolerate being paid less than they would if employed in industry, but that they are critically aware of whether salaries of all university employees in similar positions are comparable.

Many Activity Sponsors Lack Pay and Training

Less than half the faculty sponsors of student activity programs have had any training for this work, and less than half are compensated for it, in money or reduced teaching load. So reports *Student Activities in the Seventies*, giving results of a survey of administrators, teacher sponsors of activities, and students conducted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Nearly three-fourths of sponsors without training would like some; more than three-fourths of those who have some training would like more. About half the sponsors volunteered or were selected by students for the assignment.

January 15 Is Martin Luther King Day

In its Resolution H-3, NEA urges observance of January 15, birthday of Martin Luther King, Jr.:

> The National Education Association believes that the attention of the people of the nation should be focused on the importance of human relations during special activities at least one day each year. It recommends that state associations urge their governors to proclaim January 15 as "Martin Luther King, Jr., Day." The Association calls upon the President of the United States to proclaim January 15 a national holiday. The Association encourages its affiliates and all school systems to plan observances of this date that will promote goodwill among all persons.

For ideas on planning an observance, write NEA Teacher Rights, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Administrator-Teacher Ratio Rises

The number of public school administrators per 100 classroom teachers increased from 8.0 in 1972-73 to 8.8 in 1976-77, according to a report presented to the 1977 NEA Representative Assembly. At the same time, the number of higher education administrators per 100 faculty members increased from 20.1 to 24.0. The national trends were not observed in all school systems or universities, however.

Teachers Work as Much in a Year as Year-Round Employees Do

A recent sample survey by the Massachusetts Teachers Association of 712 teachers across the state revealed that teachers' total working hours, including both compensated and noncompensated time, amounted to about the same number per year (1,781 hours) as those of employees in business and industry who have a 45-week work year during which they work 1,800 hours. Nationally, the work year of teachers averaged 1,706 hours in 1975-76. This is so because during their 37-week school year, teachers work about eight hours a week more than such other employees. (They average 9 hours a week of noncompensated work.)

Nearly Half of U.S. Children Have Working Mothers

In 1976, 46 percent of children under 18 had mothers in the labor force, according to a study released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor (DOL). In 1970, the figure was 39 percent.

While the number of children in families has declined since 1970, the number with working mothers has risen. Two causes, according to DOL's Women's Bureau, are steadily increasing labor force participation by married women with young children and the increasing incidence of divorced mothers, who are more likely to be in the labor force than other mothers with children.

Contest Seeks Unpublished Third-World Writers

Third-world U.S. writers who have never had a children's book published are eligible to win $500 prizes for unpublished children's book manuscripts. A prize is offered for each of five ethnic groups: African American, Asian American, Chicano, Native American, and Puerto Rican. The manuscripts should challenge stereotypes, supply role models, and portray some distinctive aspect of the culture they describe, as well as have literary merit. Judges will be members of the author's ethnic group. Manuscripts must be submitted by December 31.

For more information, write the Council on Interracial Books for Children, 1841 Broadway, New York 10023.

Students' Drug Use Patterns Are Shifting

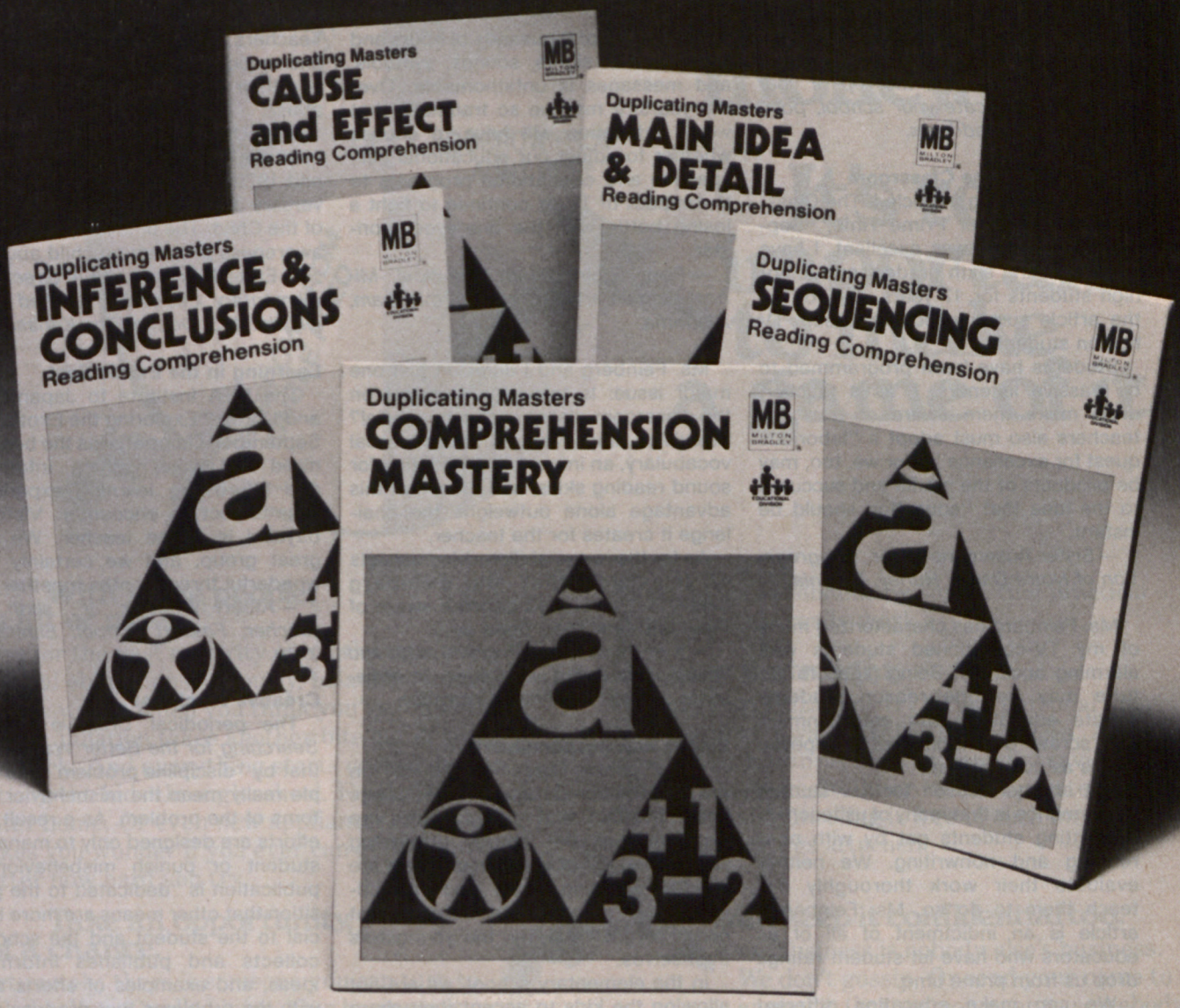
High school seniors used LSD, amphetamines, barbiturates, and alcohol at about the same rates in 1976 as in 1975 but smoked marijuana more, according to a national survey done for the National Institute on Drug Abuse. Nearly 8 percent of the seniors surveyed said they had used marijuana at least 20 times in the last month; 6 percent had used alcohol that often.

Completion of a 10-year series of student surveys in San Mateo County, California, revealed that in 1970 girls' rates of tobacco use began to exceed those of boys and continued to climb into the seventies while the boys' rates declined. However, the survey said that the 1977 figures for girls show that their rates of tobacco use may have reached a plateau.

Vocational Schools Show Few Girls in Nontraditional Roles

During the 1974-75 school year, researchers at the Pennsylvania State University surveyed vocational high schools throughout the country to determine how these might encourage girls to choose nontraditional occupations. They found only 11 schools in which at least five females were taking one or more traditionally male courses. Even here, they report, the girls were not studying "hard core" male trades like construction, metalworking, or auto mechanics.

Slow reading is only a symptom.



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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 22

Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Prime Time in the Classroom

Susan Feinberg's article ("The Classroom's No Longer Prime Time," September-October) was excellent. I have been teaching sixth graders and junior high students for 17 years, and for me the article summarized the effects TV has on students.

Students have been programmed to be passive listeners. I, as a teacher, must make them aware of this. But teachers also must adopt a "laborious quest for excellence"—for we, too, may be products of the media and succumb to the idea that "education should be instant."

—Sister Rosemarie Miller, *Congregation of Notre Dame, Hurley, Virginia.*

Ms. Feinberg has characterized many of my TV-conditioned students with alarming accuracy. Being glued to the tube may be one reason students equate education with entertainment and scrawl a few lines of misspelled words as compositions.

But another reason for low student performance is that many of us teachers are letting students get by with nonreading and nonwriting. We neither evaluate their work thoroughly nor teach them to do so. Ms. Feinberg's article is an indictment of all of us educators who have let student ratings drop us from prime time.

We can make education different from television, but to do so we will have to work together and work hard.

—Martha Williams, *speech and English teacher, Lydia Patterson Institute, El Paso, Texas.*

Our visually oriented classes are conditioned solely to receive visual "input" without having to produce any "feedback." A teacher has to be "on" continuously to capture and hold the attention of the "audience." Unintentionally rude interruptions and calling out are commonplace in some classrooms.

Besides mastering all the other aspects of educating, a teacher today must be prepared to compete for an entertainment award in the category of "Outstanding Performance in a Learning Situation (Drama, Comedy, Variety)."

—Marilyn A. Karr, *sixth grade teacher, Woodrow Wilson Elementary School, Elizabeth, New Jersey.*

The impact of thousands of hours and thousands of sights, sounds, symbols, and messages is unfathomable. Over the years, it may be so traumatic that we in education will have to choose whether to adjust our educational perspective and educational programs to the impact of TV or continue to fight a losing battle with the one-eyed monster.

—Roy Higginbotham, *principal, Minor Elementary School, Birmingham, Alabama.*

Ms. Feinberg and I differ on just one major issue: Is television's impact on the classroom disastrous or beneficial? Television improves children's verbal vocabulary, an important foundation for sound reading skills, and I feel that this advantage alone outweighs the challenge it creates for the teacher.

As for the range of disturbing aspects of television that Ms. Feinberg describes, we should become aware of them and face them head on.

—Kyle Peck, *seventh grade math and reading teacher, Lake County Intermediate School, Leadville, Colorado.*

Values and Responsibility

"Can Schools Teach Kids Values?" in the September-October issue brings home the fact that we educators are expending all our energy discussing how we feel about where youngsters are headed, ignoring those who will ultimately be carrying the burden: that nearly forgotten entity, the youngsters themselves.

In the elementary school, we are not allowing the kids to accept their share of that gigantic responsibility, the plotting of their futures. Because we fear and distrust our students, we tell them exactly what to do and when and where and how and why to do it. Just what does this prepare them for?

Let's stop shutting up their feelings, wants, and values along with their mouths. The alternative is never-ending struggle with their frustrations and the resulting misbehavior.

—Philip M. Hartmann, *second grade teacher, Bunche Elementary School, Fort Wayne, Indiana.*

Abused Children

Hooray! "What Can Be Done About Child Abuse?" (September-October) was both effective and timely.

I hope it was the first of many articles on the subject. Much more remains to be told, and the article's most important points are worth repeating: Many abused children are of school age, and the only people who see them regularly, except their parents, may be teachers. Teachers have a special opportunity and responsibility to help these children and their families by reporting signs of abuse.

The United Nations has declared 1979 the International Year of the Child, and 1979 will also be the twentieth anniversary of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. The time is ripe to begin an awareness program on child abuse.

—Ethel Peterson, *NEA director and elementary counselor, Unified School District 443, Dodge City, Kansas.*

Learning in the Exotic East

The NEA Institute to Japan, China, and Korea ("Exploring the Exotic East," September-October) was the best organized and most exciting, informative, and interesting learning experience I ever expect to encounter. Victor Kobayashi is a fine teacher. We had a great group, and we certainly had a wonderful three months together.

—Albert Wheeler, Jr., *sixth grade teacher, Fassett School, Elmira, New York.*

Creative Discipline

The periodical *Creative Discipline: Searching for the Better Way* contends that by "discipline problem" many people really mean the misbehavior symptoms of the problem. As a result, many efforts are designed only to manage the student or punish misbehavior. This publication is "dedicated to the proposition that other means are more beneficial to the student and the school." It collects and publishes information, ideas, and examples of efforts to deal with the problems that produce misbehavior.

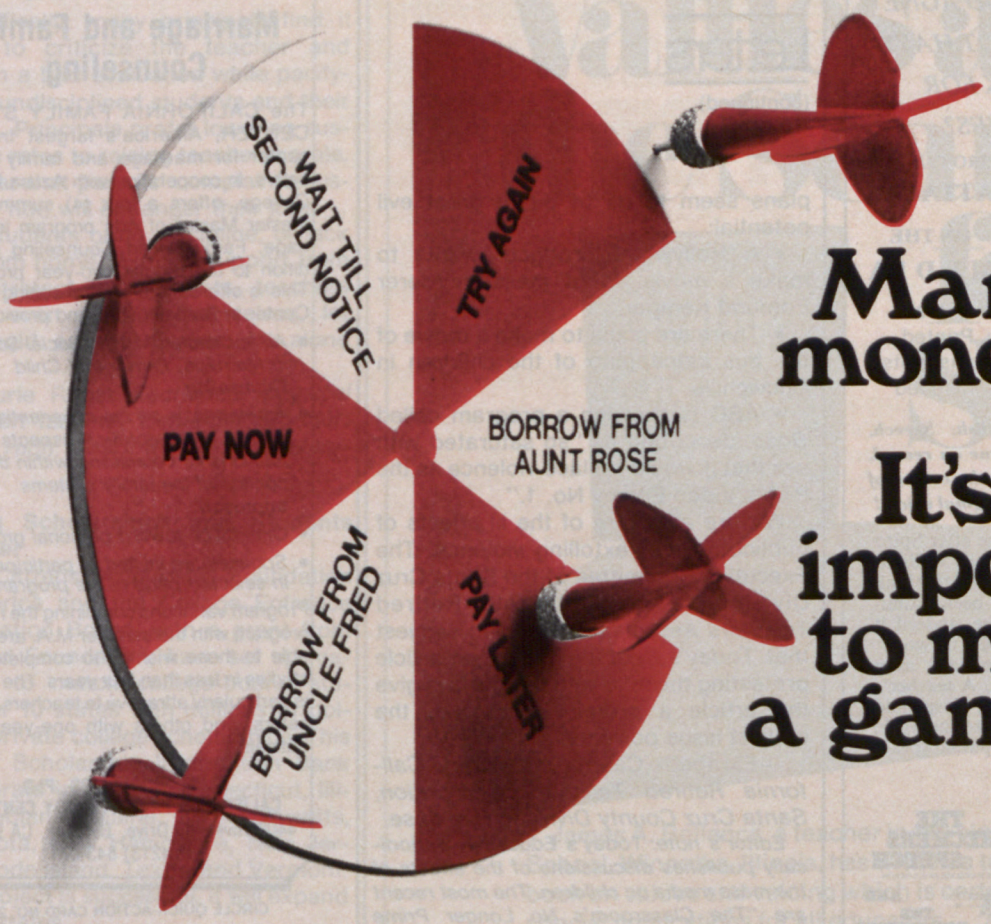
Subscriptions to *Creative Discipline* cost $7 for seven issues. Send all materials and requests to American Friends Service Committee, 401 Columbia Building, Columbia, SC 29201.

—Merry Bateman, *editor,* Creative Discipline, *Columbia, South Carolina.*

Protesting Violence

Several developments have come to our attention which we feel need immediate and effective publicity. These

(continued page 16)



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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 44

Letters

(continued)

plans seem to us to be of great evil potential:

- A Hollywood producer wants to make a movie about mass murderer Edmund Kemper.
- There are plans to make a movie of the bus kidnapping of the children in Chowchilla.
- ABC is showing a program called *Soap*, described as "so saturated with sex that it would replace violence as the PTA's Video Enemy No. 1."

We are all aware of the ill effects of publicizing and extolling violence. The Executive Committee of the Santa Cruz Division of the California Retired Teachers Association voted to request that *Today's Education* carry an article protesting these developments and give the article a prominent spot in the earliest issue possible.

—Elizabeth Castro, *president, California Retired Teachers Association, Santa Cruz County Division, San Jose.*

Editor's note: Today's Education *periodically publishes discussions of the effects of the mass media on children. The most recent are "The Classroom's No Longer Prime Time" (September-October) and the review of* The Plug-In Drug *which appears in "Books" in this issue.*

Cultural Exchange by Letter

The Afro-Asian Center offers students cultural exchange through correspondence. The Center operates solely through cooperating teachers in different parts of the world to promote friendship and cultural understanding between young people in Africa/Asia and those in America. The service fee is 70¢ per student.

Teachers who want to have their students participate in this program should contact the Afro-Asian Center, C.P.O. Box 871, Kingston, NY 12401.

—Robert Carroll, *center director, and African/Asian studies teacher, John A. Coleman High School, Kingston, New York.*

Why Teachers Are Battered

The conditions Dr. Block describes ("The Battered Teacher," March-April) are familiar. The Prince George's Education Association in Maryland reports there are three attacks a week on teachers in our system. Teachers are threatened and harassed, while many principals make plain that they don't want to hear about discipline problems.

Master of Arts Marriage and Family Counseling

The CALIFORNIA FAMILY STUDY CENTER, America's largest training center for marriage and family counselors, in cooperation with Azusa Pacific College, offers a four (4) summer/semester Master of Arts program in Marriage, Family Child Counseling in addition to the regular two-year program. This is offered in a clinical setting at the Center in Burbank, CA, and provides:

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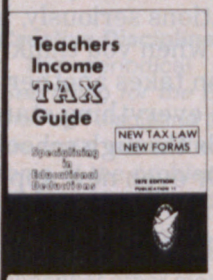

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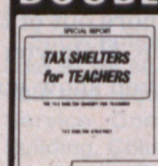

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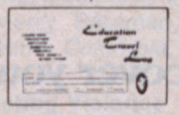

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Specifically, many principals find it safest to criticize the teacher and threaten a bad evaluation while pacifying the undisciplined students and their parents. Principals prefer lowering suspension rates to raising teacher morale. They fear that parents' complaints, justified or not, will endanger their jobs.

Yet students bring discipline, or lack of it, from home. Without support from administrators and parents, teachers cannot even protect themselves, let alone hold orderly classes, let alone teach.

—Laurie Roger Laurienzo, *physical education teacher, Benjamin Stoddert Junior High, Marlow Heights, Maryland.*

Getting Scholarships and Students Together

The Citizens Scholarship Foundation of America and the College Entrance Examination Board, with a grant from the Ford Foundation, have set up machinery to match college-bound students in 10 states with millions of dollars in private college scholarships. This College Scholarship Information Bank will operate initially in Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Texas, and Vermont. If the project is successful, it will expand into all states.

For information, write me at the College Board, 888 Seventh Avenue, New York City 10019.

—Elizabeth W. Suchar, *director, Financial Aid Services, College Entrance Examination Board.*

Overseas Teachers and Back Pay

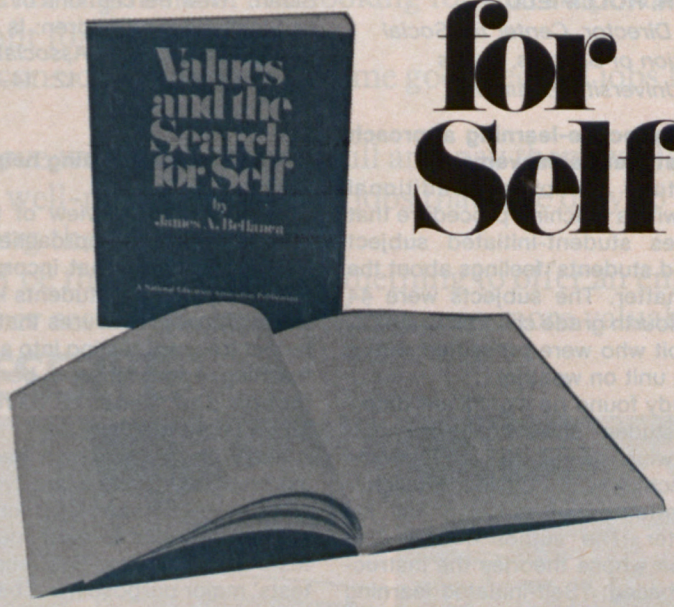
Processing of back pay for teachers in Department of Defense Dependents Schools (DODDS) recommenced last summer after a six-week moratorium. By the end of August, more than 4,000 revised damage statements had been sent to current DODDS teachers. By mid-September, damage statements were being mailed to former teachers.

If you were a teacher for the DODDS between April 14, 1966, and June 30, 1975, and you haven't identified yourself to DOD, you should write the Teachers Back Pay Project, Office of Dependents Schools, 2461 Eisenhower Avenue, Alexandria, VA 22331.

The suit which won the back pay, pursued for years by the Overseas Education Association and the NEA, is the most complex back pay suit in the history of the federal government.

—Carl D. Moore, *executive director, Overseas Education Association, Washington, DC.*

Values and the Search for Self



James A. Bellanca, a teacher in the New Trier High School, Winnetka, Illinois, has written a truly remarkable book on values and valuing which is certain to have special implications for all educators . . . and, ultimately, their students.

The purpose of *Values and the Search for Self* is to help the reader become a more effective facilitator of learning. Based on the assumption that the most valuable learning is founded in self-knowledge and a resultant knowledge of others, the book presents a view of teaching as helping and caring within a supportive but flexible structure.

In this view, the goal of each individual teacher or student is the ability to direct her/his own learning. Such an ability involves a five-step process of exercising personal control, assessing needs, setting up goals, using resources, and evaluating outcomes.

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Research Clues

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

Can an affective-learning approach increase student achievement?

This study compares traditional teaching with a teaching procedure that emphasizes student-initiated subject matter and students' feelings about the subject matter. The subjects were 44 third and fourth grade children in suburban Detroit who were presented with a one-week unit on weather.

The study found no significant differences in student achievement immediately following the unit, but the students in the affective-learning class did significantly better on a retention test six weeks later. The author quotes Carl Rogers, on whose theories the instruction was based: "Self-initiated learning which involves the whole person of the learner—feelings as well as intellect—is the most lasting and pervasive." The study supports this statement.

See Nicholas J. Bodoin and Justin Pikunas. "Affective Learning and Content Achievement in Grades Three and Four." *The Journal of Educational Research* 70: 235-37, May/June 1977.

Is the proportion of children who are left-handed increasing?

Yes, according to this survey study of 899 parents in 24 states. Overall, 6.2 percent of the parents reported that they themselves are left-handed. The proportion of 20 to 29 year olds who are left-handed is 11 percent; of 30 to 39 year olds, 6 percent; and of those 40 and older, 7 percent. Of the 2,344 children of all these parents, 10.2 percent are left-handed.

The authors interpret these data and cite other studies to show that left-handedness is increasing. They propose that attitudes about handedness have changed and are changing—parents no longer push their children toward right-handedness.

Teachers should be aware that much school and classroom equipment and arrangements, like those of the rest of society, are oriented toward right-handed users and that left-handed students may require special help to cope with this orientation.

See DeWayne Triplett and Charles Sloan. "New Perceptions of Sinistrality, or Sinistrality in Children: Is It Increasing?" *Journal of the Association for the Study of Perception* 12: 14-18, Spring 1977.

Does frequent testing help students learn?

Yes, says this review of testing research. Teaching approaches, such as mastery learning, that incorporate frequent testing help students learn. Even instructional procedures that simply interject frequent testing into a traditional teaching approach are beneficial, although the benefits haven't been proved consistently.

The authors stress that frequent testing provides a continuous cycle of feedback-correction-improvement to each student. Students must perceive the tests as facilitating learning, and the tests' major purpose must be to provide information for use in helping individual students learn and in altering instructional programs.

See Perry D. Peckham and Michael D. Roe. "The Effects of Frequent Testing." *Journal of Research and Development in Education* 10: 40-50, No. 3, 1977.

What are the benefits and drawbacks of the extended school year?

This descriptive research study surveyed school administrators in 79 districts throughout the country that had at least one school operating on an extended school year program (year-round schooling).

The study asked respondents to make comparisons between extended and traditional school calendars.

The author's conclusions are as follows:

- Men teachers and heads of households prefer the extended school year employment.
- The program has no adverse effects on student health.
- The program influences the dropout rate, i.e., 89 percent of the administrators reported no difference in dropout rates between the two types of school calendars while 11 percent reported higher dropout rates in schools with the traditional calendar.
- Average daily attendance does not suffer.
- The program helps improve academic achievement as measured by standardized tests and grades.
- The program is not likely to produce financial savings.

Too often, according to the author, school districts considering the extended school year emphasize only financial aspects of the plan, ignoring other real benefits.

See Mossie J. Richmond, Jr. "Effects of Extended School Year Operations." *Education* 97: 392-98, Fall 1977.

Do misspelled words in advertisements affect children's spelling?

Children are heavily exposed to ads that deliberately misspell words (Froot Loops, Trix, and Kool-Aid, for example). This study gave spelling tests using 50 words commonly misspelled in advertisements to children in grades three through six. A large percentage of the students misspelled some of the words the same way they were misspelled in ads.

The finding is interesting, but the authors rightly claim it is inconclusive. And they ignore a very possible secondary explanation for their findings: After all, if you were read the words *whisk* or *cheese* on a spelling test and didn't know how to spell them, what might your logical phonetic responses be? *Wisk* and *Cheez* look and sound good—just as they do in the ads.

See Jerry B. Ayers and Mary N. Ayers. "Influence of Advertising on Spelling in the Elementary Grades." *Reading Improvement* 14: 116-19, Summer 1977.

Is open education "best" for all children?

This opinion paper based on a small amount of research on open education argues that not all children are likely to thrive in open classrooms. Students with an internal locus of control (those who feel in control of their lives) should do well in the open classroom, but students with an external locus of control (those who feel that external persons and events control their lives) will not do well.

This idea is being postulated more and more often but has yet to be supported by research.

See Donald L. Halsted, Anne Marie Bober, and Fred Streit. "Open Classroom: A Panacea?" *Educational Forum* 41: 487-91, May 1977. □

A GOOD SECOND JOB CAN MAKE THEIR FIRST JOBS EASIER TO FIND.

When a young person is fresh out of high school and looking for that important first job, it's pretty hard to be a qualified applicant for anything.

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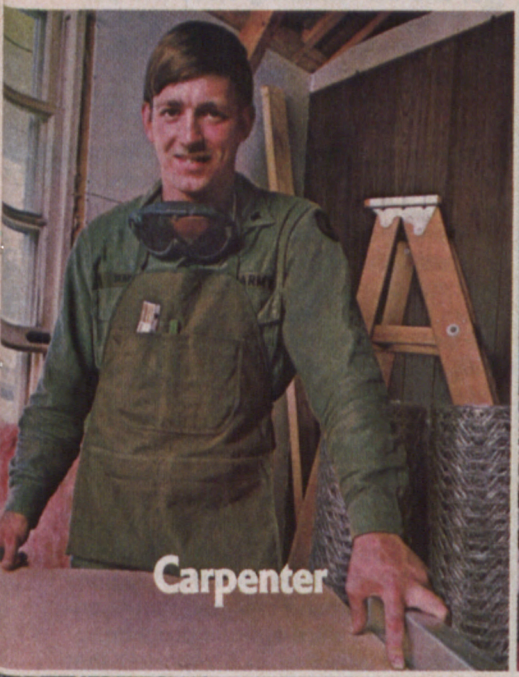

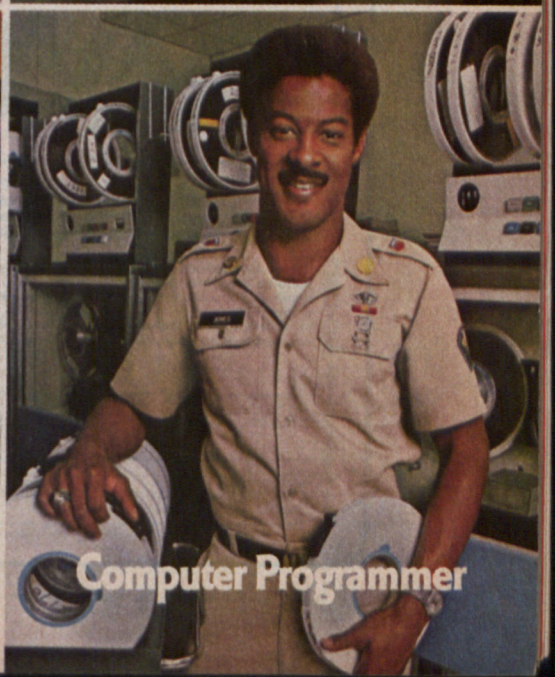

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Member Opinion Poll

Financial Cutbacks

In 1975-76, 100,200 NEA members received notice of possible nonrenewal of their contracts because of financial constraints, according to estimates projected from an NEA Research sample survey of members in February 1977. Of these, about 73,800 (73.7 percent) were kept in their jobs, 21,100 (21 percent) were reemployed in another job, and the remaining 5,300 (5.3 percent) were employed in a different school system or institution in 1976-77. (These estimates do not include the former NEA members who may have received RIF notices in 1975-76.)

Notice that their employment might be discontinued for financial reasons was reported by 9.7 percent of members under age 30 but by only 3 percent of those aged 50 or more. Also, 11.8 percent of members with one to five years of teaching experience received a RIF notice, but only 3.3 percent of those with 20 or more years of experience received one.

More than 3 members in 4 (77.7 percent) reported that reduction in financial support of their schools had been either a *major* or a *minor* problem for teachers in their school systems. More respondents in the Northeast (41.6 percent) than in other regions (28.7 to 33 percent) reported that financial cutbacks were a *major* problem.

About 1 member in 5 reported that school system financial cutbacks have been a *major* problem for them personally.

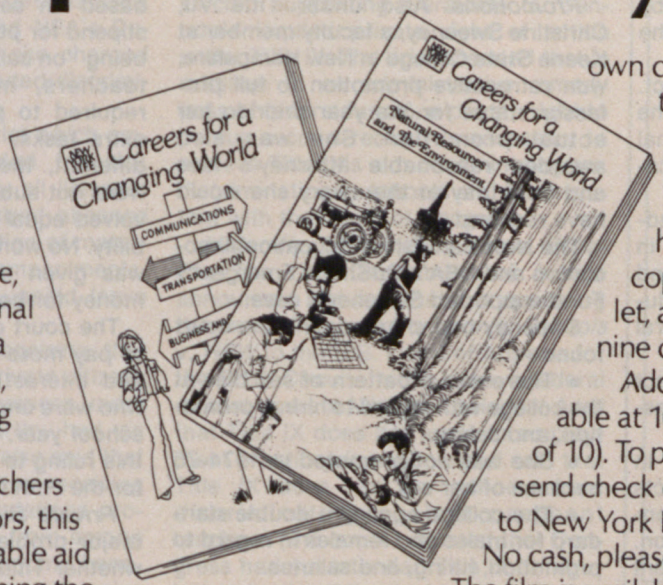
Among respondents reporting financial cutbacks, 55.7 percent said that these caused a decrease in the overall teaching staff; 53.7 percent, a decrease in teaching materials; 53.2 percent, an increase in class size; 36.9 percent, an elimination of some school programs; 33.5 percent, a decrease in special subject teachers; 31 percent, a decrease in supplementary texts; 29.3 percent, a delay in purchase of more modern texts; 25.6 percent, a decrease in other instructional staff such as counselors; and 21.4 percent, curtailment of extracurricular activities.

—NEA Research.

Where are they headed? New York Life can help point the way.

Choosing the right career could be the toughest decision a student will ever have to make. To help you point them in the right direction, New York Life, working with educational experts, has prepared a public service program, "Careers for a Changing World."

With the help of teachers and guidance counselors, this program can be a valuable aid in exploring and explaining the ever-changing career opportunities open to young people.



The "Careers for a Changing World" program includes:

1. An Overview Booklet. This takes a broad look at the problem of choosing a career, the expanding opportunities and educational options open to students, plus a helpful list of current career information sources.
2. Nine Career Booklets. Each booklet includes occupational categories listed by the U.S. Office of Education. Available currently are: "Business and Office"; "The Arts"; "Health Care"; "Hospitality and Recreation"; "Transportation"; "Natural Resources and the Environment"; "Manufacturing"; "Construction"; and "Communications and Media." Additional booklets are being prepared.
3. A 28-minute motion picture entitled, "What Will I Do With My Time?" This 16mm color film features working people discussing their career choices and high school students discussing their own career hopes and doubts. A teacher's guide, which you may keep, will accompany the film.

New York Life will be happy to send you—free—a copy of the Overview booklet, and one copy each of the nine career booklets.

Additional booklets are available at 10¢ each (minimum order of 10). To purchase additional copies, send check or money order payable to New York Life Insurance Company. No cash, please.

The film is available to teachers on a free-loan basis. However, due to heavy demand, you should order at least three months before you plan to use the film. You may order by writing to "Careers," New York Life Insurance Company, Box 51, Madison Square Station, New York, NY 10010.

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The Teacher and the Law

An Update on Sex Bias Cases

Three antibias laws augment earlier Executive Orders that bar discrimination on the basis of sex and race by institutions receiving federal funds. The laws are—

- Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. This law, which bars job bias on the basis of race, sex, religion, and national origin, now extends coverage to educators on all levels.
- Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. It ends sex bias in admissions, treatment of students, and employment of staff and faculty in educational institutions that receive federal funds.
- The Equal Pay Act of 1963. This act was amended in 1972 to include professional employees.

Although these laws have been in effect for some time, school districts and institutions of higher learning continue to practice sex discrimination. This article will discuss some recent court actions and strategies involving such discrimination.

In general, Title IX requirements parallel Title VII and the Equal Pay Act, but most lawsuits challenging sex bias against faculty continue to be filed under these last two or under the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Retirement Rights. In the area of pension benefits, Title IX is similar to the Equal Pay Act, which provides that with regard to pensions and annuities, the employer is required to provide either equal contributions or equal benefits. Title VII, on the other hand, provides that equal benefits must be provided to men and women irrespective of any sex differential in costs of the benefits.

Most pension plans used by teachers use sex-segregated mortality tables that show that on the average women will live longer than men. Therefore, women receive a smaller per-month payment when they retire.

Under Title VII, this practice is being fought in the federal courts. In Michigan, *Peters* v. *Wayne State University* challenges smaller per-month stipends for women. In Maine, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, represented by the Justice Department, won a similar case against Colby College, and in New York, the Commission found probable cause for a charge of sex bias in the retirement plans at Columbia University.

Promotions. Also under Title VII, Christine Sweeney, a faculty member at Keene State College in New Hampshire, won retroactive promotion to full professor status for the year prior to her actual promotion. She was also awarded reasonable attorney's fees and back pay at the salary she would have received.

The New Hampshire Education Association and NEA's DuShane Emergency Fund supported Sweeney's case.

Sweeney had charged, and the court found—

- There was a pattern of sex bias at the college with regard to hiring, promotion, and salary.
- She was not promoted in 1974-75 because of her sex.
- The college applied a double standard for males and females in regard to promotion, hiring, and salaries.
- The defendants did not rebut her *prima facie* case of discrimination in that they did not show a nondiscriminatory motive.
- The college's affirmative action plan was inadequate, particularly with regard to promotion and salary.

The college has appealed the decision to the First Circuit federal appeals court.

Equal Pay. A federal court in Delaware concluded several years ago that sex-based pay differentials for coaches were not justified. In a case involving a female teacher who coached girls' softball and a male teacher who coached boys' baseball, it held that pay differentials were not justified, because the jobs were substantially equal in that they required equal effort, skill, and responsibility. Both teams had the same requirements for hours of practice, numbers of players, rules, and length of season.

Despite the Delaware case, only last July did a federal court, this time in Texas, strike down a $300 "head of household" increment paid to male teachers as discriminatory on the basis of sex.

The U.S. Secretary of Labor had initiated legal action against the A&M Consolidated School District after an investigation by the Department of Labor's Wage and Hour division. The court held that the practice of paying male teachers the $300 increment was based on sex and was not an extra stipend for performing extra duties and being "on call." The court found that all teachers, male and female, were required to perform and did perform extra tasks. Even if these tasks were different, the court noted, the duties were not substantially different and involved equal skill, effort, and responsibility. No woman, the court pointed out, was given the chance to earn extra money for being "on call."

The court ordered the school district to pay more than $43,000 in back pay and interest to 123 women teachers who were underpaid during the 1972-73 school year. The district has appealed this ruling to the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit.

Private Right of Action. One of the major problems in Title IX litigation is whether Title IX creates an implied private right of action—in other words, whether an individual or a class of individuals have a court remedy for the personal injury suffered because of sex discrimination by the educational institutions that employ them. The remedy explicitly called for in the legislation is an administrative one—cutting off federal funds to institutions that practice sex bias.

Last winter, a federal district court in Ohio held that Title IX, which bans sex bias in any "education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance," created an implied private right of action in a case of sex bias in employment allegedly practiced by an art museum covered by the Act.

In this case, a female applicant for a security guard's position claimed that her job application was rejected on the basis of sex. The court held that because she failed to prove unlawful discrimination, she was not entitled to recovery. It did, however, recognize her right to pursue a court remedy to vindicate her rights. The court observed that the legislative history supporting Title IX reveals Congressional intent to eradicate sex bias in educational activities.

Last April, a federal court in Kansas authorized teacher Joan McCarthy to bring a class action suit under Title IX against the Kansas Association of School Boards and school board mem-

bers throughout Kansas. McCarthy had been denied sick leave benefits during maternity leaves for two pregnancies. Aided by Kansas-NEA and NEA's DuShane Emergency Fund, she charged that these denials constituted discrimination on the basis of sex.

The policies of the district which employed McCarthy provided for sick leave benefits for virtually all illnesses and disabilities that required absence from work with the exception of maternity and its physical accompaniments, for which they provided unpaid leave only.

The federal court, recognizing that Congress intended that private citizens seek court redress of grievances under Title IX, said that McCarthy had an implied cause of action. It also said that in any educational institution receiving federal funds, Title IX regulations prohibit excluding pregnancy from among the disabilities for which income benefits are payable under a comprehensive disability plan or policy. It noted that the U.S. Supreme Court's pronouncements in *Gilbert* v. *G.E.*, which concerned disability pay under Title VII or the Constitution, have no effect on cases involving educational institutions. (At press time, the Senate had passed a bill that would overturn the *Gilbert* decision. It would amend Title VII by requiring employers to include maternity coverage in any disability benefits they offer employees.)

Another case involving the right to private action under Title IX was recently lost on rehearing before the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit. The case was brought by a woman who was denied admission to the medical schools at the University of Chicago and Northwestern University. Both a district court in Illinois and the Seventh Circuit had previously denied that (1) she could file suit under the post-Civil War civil rights statutes because she failed to show state involvement in the decision to deny admission, (2) she had a right to file suit as a private individual seeking money damages under Title IX, and (3) she could charge the universities with age discrimination in regard to future employment because they assist graduates to secure employment.

NEA, the Women's Equity Action League, and the National Organization for Women had filed a friend of the court brief in this case in the Seventh Circuit, supporting Geraldine G. Cannon's implied private right of action under Title IX. The brief asserted that in addition to an administrative remedy (loss of federal funds), a private right to pursue a court remedy is necessary to achieve Title IX's aim of eliminating sex discrimination in schools and is consistent with the intent of Congress.

Maternity Leaves/Sick Leave Benefits. The U.S. Department of Justice announced last July that it is appealing the case of *Romeo Community Schools* v. *HEW* to the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit. In this case, a federal district court in Michigan held last April that Title IX does not apply to employment practices in schools and said that Title IX does not bar schools from discriminating against pregnant teachers. The court indicated that Congress had not intended Title IX to regulate sex discrimination in the employment relationship between federally funded public schools and their faculty. The *Romeo* ruling contrasts with the federal court's decision in *McCarthy.*

The case arose in February 1976, when Susan Garrard, a pregnant counselor employed by the school system, filed a complaint with HEW's Office for Civil Rights after the Romeo district informed her that she could not use her accrued sick leave for pregnancy and childbirth purposes. When the system declined to comply with the Title IX regulations, HEW took steps to cut off the district's federal funds. Romeo school officials went to the federal courts to prevent HEW from enforcing its regulations.

The district court agreed with the school district's contention that HEW could not legally regulate employment practices since employment is not an "educational program or activity" that is covered by Title IX. In the hope that the *Romeo* decision will be overturned on appeal, HEW says that it is continuing to enforce its Title IX regulations with respect to employment practices outside that Michigan district.

NEA and the Michigan Education Association are financing litigation for Garrard.

—**Betty E. Sinowitz,** *NEA Teacher Rights.*

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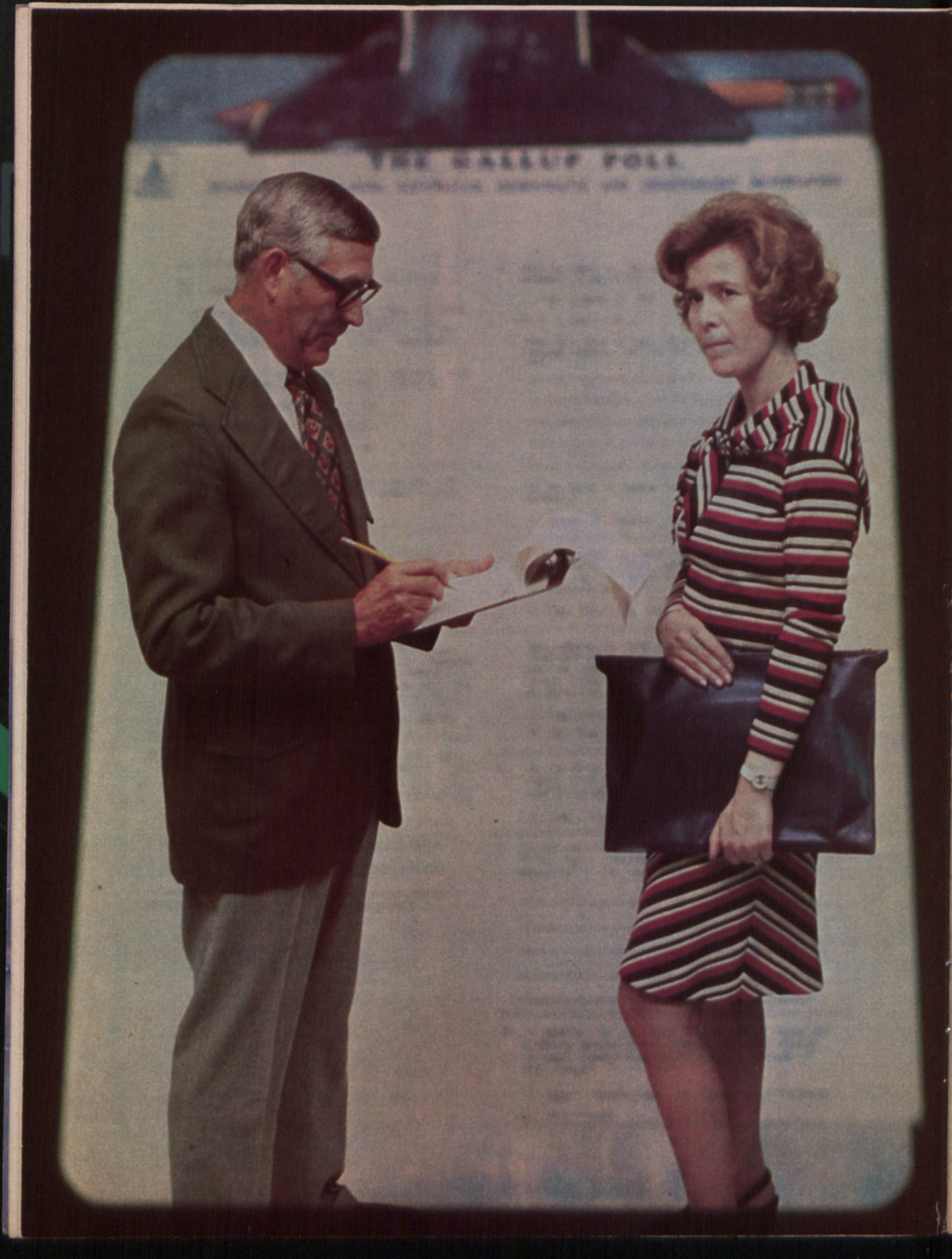
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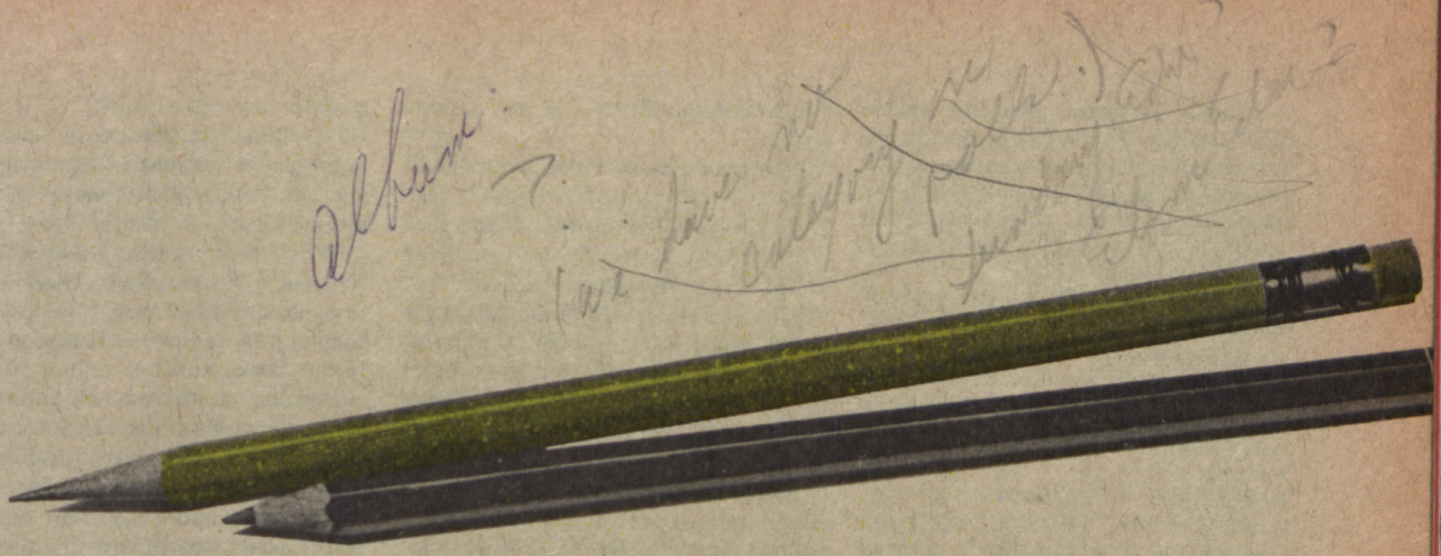


What Does the Public Think of the SCHOOLS?

The following findings from the ninth annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools have been excerpted from the full report, which appears in the September 1977 issue of Phi Delta Kappan.

Major Problems Confronting the Public Schools in 1977. Discipline continues to top the list of major problems facing the public schools of the nation, as it has during eight of the last nine years of the Gallup education polls. In fact, the percentage who cite discipline as a major problem (26 percent) is the highest found during the period in which these annual surveys have been conducted.

Parents of children now attending public schools, perhaps the group best suited to judge the schools, cite discipline as the number-one problem and by the highest percentage yet recorded (27 percent).

The problem that seems near solution is the problem of adequate facilities. Nine years ago "lack of proper facilities" drew enough votes to place it second on the list of major problems facing the schools. In this year's survey, for the second straight year, only 2 percent of the sample cite this as a major problem.

The list of problems remains substantially the same as in previous years, with integration/segregation/busing in second place (mentioned by 13 percent), and lack of proper financial support in third (mentioned by 12 percent).

The problem of drug usage is mentioned by fewer persons than last year, going from 11 percent in 1976 to 7 percent this year.

Below, in order of mentions, is the list of top problems:

1. Lack of discipline
2. Integration/segregation/busing
3. Lack of proper financial support
4. Difficulty of getting "good" teachers
5. Poor curriculum
6. Use of drugs
7. Parents' lack of interest
8. Size of school/classes
9. Teachers' lack of interest
10. Mismanagement of funds/programs.

1977 Rating of the Public Schools. As perceived by U.S. adults, the quality of education has declined during the last year. The 1977 ratings of the public schools show a significant drop since 1974, when the present rating method was first employed in the Gallop Poll.

The five-point scale used to measure the public's perceptions of the quality of public school education in their own communities is one that is widely used by the schools themselves. The question reads as follows:

Students are often given the grades A,B,C,D, and FAIL to denote the quality of their work. Suppose the public schools themselves, in this community, were graded in the same way. What grade would you give the public schools here—A,B,C,D, or FAIL?

Here are the national ratings given the public schools by respondents for the last four years:

Ratings Given the Public Schools	National Totals 1977 %	1976 %	1975 %	1974 %
A rating	11	13	13	18
B rating	26	29	30	30
C rating	28	28	28	21
D rating	11	10	9	6
FAIL	5	6	7	5
Don't know/ no answer	19	14	13	20

It may bring some comfort to public school educators to know that the ratings given by parents who have children now enrolled in public schools have shown no decline since last year.

Discipline continues to top the list of major problems facing the public schools.

In fact, if their top two ratings—A and B—are combined, the rating is 54 percent, which compares with their score of 50 percent in 1976.

The lowest ratings come from persons who have no children attending school and from those parents whose children are enrolled in parochial and private schools. These two groups are responsible for some of the decline in the national score.

The number of U.S. families with children of school age has declined. The drop in the national rating of the schools can be explained in part by this fact.

Analysis of the findings by socioeconomic groups reveals that the following groups give the lowest ratings to their local schools:

1. Young adults (18 to 29 age group)
2. Residents of cities over 1 million
3. Persons living in the West
4. Blacks, particularly those living in the Northern states.

What's Particularly Good About the Local Schools? To provide an opportunity for the respondents in the present survey to tell what they thought was particularly good about the local schools, the following question asked in some of the earlier surveys in this series was repeated, "In your own opinion, in what ways are your local public schools particularly good?"

The two responses offered most frequently were "the curriculum" (25 percent) and "the teachers" (20 percent). These have been the two most frequently mentioned in earlier surveys. Here are the top 10 responses, in order of mention:

1. The curriculum
2. The teachers
3. Extracurricular activities
4. School facilities
5. Equal opportunities for all students
6. Good administration
7. Parental interest/participation
8. Good student/teacher relationships
9. Good discipline
10. Small school or small classes.

Tenure. A recurring issue of recent years has to do with tenure for teachers. During the nine years that these studies dealing with the public's attitudes toward the public schools have been conducted, views on tenure have been probed on three occasions by questions that contained an explanation of the issue.

The question often arises, however, as to how many persons in the general public are familiar with the term *tenure* and how persons who are better informed in this respect view the problem.

In this connection, a question was first asked of all persons included in the survey, "Do you happen to know what the word 'tenure' means as it applies to teachers' jobs?" A second question asked of those who replied yes, "Just as you understand it, what does tenure mean?" A third question, limited to those who gave a correct answer, asked, "Do you favor or oppose tenure for teachers?"

A total of 28 percent of the adults interviewed nationally could give a correct definition of tenure as it applies to teachers' jobs.

When persons who know what the term means are asked whether they favor or oppose tenure, a majority say they oppose tenure, as has been found in the earlier surveys.

Persons who have no children in the schools are more likely to favor tenure than those who have children in school. Among the former, 44 percent favor tenure and 45 percent oppose it; in the case of parents with children in the public schools, 54 percent oppose and 37 percent favor it. In the case of parents with children in parochial or private schools, 84 percent oppose and 16 percent favor tenure.

Back-to-Basics Movement. The decline in national test scores and frequent media reports of illiteracy among high school graduates have given impetus to what is now widely referred to as the back-to-basics movement.

To discover how widely known this movement is and to obtain evidence of its popularity, three questions were included in the survey. The first asked, "Have you heard or read about the back-to-basics movement in education?"

Understandably, the better educated and those with children now attending school are more familiar with the movement.

	National Totals %	No Children In Schools %	Public School Parents %	Parochial School Parents %
Yes, have heard of the term	41	38	47	62
No, have not	57	60	52	36
Don't know/no answer	2	2	1	2

Many laymen interested in education, as well as educators, think of other subjects as "basic" besides the traditional three R's. But does the general public?

The second question was asked, therefore, of those who said that they were aware of this movement: "When this term is used, do you think of anything besides reading, writing, and

arithmetic?" The responses to this question, on the whole, indicate that the public regards the basics largely in terms of the traditional three subject areas. Other subjects are mentioned—history, geography, spelling, citizenship, science, music, art, physical education—but not frequently.

Many respondents, however, think of the term, not in relation to subjects or courses, but in relation to the educational process itself. Thus, "back to basics" is interpreted as meaning a return to schooling of earlier years. To many respondents it means "respect for teachers," "good manners," "politeness," "obedience," "respect for elders," "structured classrooms," "back to the old ways of teaching."

The third question, asked of those familiar with the term, was, "Do you favor or oppose this back-to-basics movement?"

All groups in the population express overwhelming approval of the movement.

Early Graduation from High School. Although the traditional in education always exerts strong influence in shaping the public's views, wide support is shown for a proposal to permit some high school students to graduate early.

Nationally, 74 percent of those sampled say that students should be permitted to graduate early if they meet graduation requirements; 22 percent say they should not. All groups in the population favor the proposal by wide margins—especially those under 30 years of age.

College Courses in Fourth Year of High School. A related proposal also wins favorable support among respondents. The following question was asked:

> Should high school courses be arranged to make it possible for some students to finish one year of college work while they are still in high school, so that these students can graduate from college in three years instead of four?

The findings show that 63 percent of the total sample say that courses should be arranged to allow college work; 31 percent say no. Young people in particular favor this proposal. The greatest opposition is found in the small communities—perhaps they would have the greatest difficulty in providing staff or facilities to add college courses for high school seniors.

Absenteeism. Few school systems have found adequate ways to cope with the thorny problem of absenteeism.

To see what suggestions parents of schoolchildren and others might have, this "open" question was asked, "In your opinion, what can be done by the schools to reduce student absenteeism (truancy)?"

The suggestions offered tend to fall in about equal numbers into three broad categories.

Category 1—Persons who, in general, believe that the schools and the teachers are chiefly to blame for absenteeism.

These typical direct quotations indicate how persons in this category would deal with the problem: "Teachers should spend more time with students, be more dedicated, and avoid being clock watchers." "Courses should be more practical, more 'today'-related." "Get the students who stay away from school most often to sit down and talk over their school problems and make their own suggestions about solving the problem."

Category 2—Persons who, in general, start with the conviction that parents are chiefly to blame for absenteeism.

Some of their suggestions follow: "Parents, whether they are at home or work, should be immediately notified if their child fails to show up at school." "When a child stays away from school, the parents should be made to confer with the teachers, with the child present, to find out why." "The schools and the local authorities should get after the parents. Put them on the block and make them see that they are responsible."

Category 3—Persons who, in general, regard truancy as a matter for the police and local authorities.

Some typical suggestions: "More truant officers should be hired, and local laws should be strictly enforced." "The police should be ordered to stop any child of school age who is on the streets during school hours. If the child doesn't have a written excuse, he or she should be taken into custody."

Punishing Parents for Student Absenteeism. Since many people hold the view that parents are responsible for their children's absenteeism from school, the proposal has been made that parents be brought into court and fined if their children continually fail to attend. To learn how much support this proposal might have throughout the nation, the following question was included in the survey:

> In your opinion, should, or should not, parents be brought into court and given a small fine when a child of theirs is frequently absent without excuse (truant) from school?

A slight majority of all respondents, 51 percent, vote for such a penalty. Parents of children who are now attending public school, who would be affected by such a ruling, are more evenly divided, but still more favor the proposal than oppose it.

Analysis of the vote by groups brings to light these facts: Older citizens favor the proposal; young adults oppose. The only region of the nation where as many as half the respondents oppose the plan is the West. Respondents whose own education ended at the grade school level are most likely to favor the proposal.

Advantages of Schools in Small Communities. Two or three decades ago it was widely believed that big-city schools, with their large enrollments, were better suited to provide quality education than the schools in small communities. In fact, it was this belief that to a great extent powered the movement for regionalization and for consolidating schools into still larger units.

Today bigness in almost every field is out of vogue. Decentralization is popular in government, business, and (judging from the results of this survey) in education as well. At least the vast majority of persons throughout the nation believe that students get a better education in schools located in small communities than they do in the big cities.

Size alone, obviously, cannot account fully for the disfavor in which many big-city schools are held. The racial mix has changed greatly in the last two decades, with the migration of upper- and middle-class white families to the suburbs.

Apart from the question of actual quality of education, the fact that most people today believe that education in the small communities is better

will almost certainly induce more families with children of school age to leave the city for the suburbs or other small communities.

In general, do you think that students today get a better education in schools that are located in small communities or in schools located in big cities?

	Small Communities %	Big Cities %	Makes No Difference %	Don't Know/ No Answer %
NATIONAL TOTALS	68	11	12	9
Sex				
Men	67	12	12	9
Women	68	10	13	9
Race				
White	68	11	13	8
Nonwhite	61	12	10	17
Age				
18 to 29 years	70	15	10	5
30 to 49 years	67	11	12	10
50 years and over	67	7	15	11
Community size				
1 million and over	71	10	12	7
500,000–999,999	52	16	19	13
50,000–499,999	67	12	12	9
2,500–49,999	70	10	11	9
Under 2,500	73	8	11	8
Education				
Grade school	61	8	17	14
High school	71	10	12	7
College	66	13	12	9
Region				
East	73	7	13	7
Midwest	69	10	12	9
South	61	16	12	11
West	68	9	14	9

Meeting Energy Shortages. The very cold winter of 1976-77 closed many schools for varying periods of time. With the prospect of energy shortages in the future, the question arises as to whether schools should close during the coldest weeks of winter.

To get the public's reaction, and especially the reaction of those parents with children now of school age, this question was asked:

In order to save energy (fuel oil, gas), it has been suggested that the schools be closed in the middle of the winter. Children would make up lost school time by starting the school year in late August and ending the school year around the first of July. Would you favor or oppose adopting this plan here?

The results, nationally, show that the public is opposed to this proposal by the ratio of 56 percent to 36 percent, with 8 percent having no opinion. Parents of children now attending public schools are even more opposed. They vote against the plan 64 percent to 32 percent.

Although no group or section of the nation votes in favor of the plan, many observers of the public scene, knowing the reluctance of the public to accept changes in the educational system, may be surprised at the size of the minority who favor the proposal.

Local Control of Federal Programs. A source of vexation in many communities is the federal government's insistence that local school authorities follow strict regulations when federal funds are awarded. Oftentimes, local authorities have different ideas about how best to spend these funds.

Respondents reveal an anti-Washington, anti-red tape attitude in their answers to the following question:

When federal agencies appropriate money for educational programs, they usually require the schools that receive this money to spend it as these agencies direct. Should, or should not, this be changed to permit local school authorities to decide how the money is to be spent?

The nation's adults vote 2-1 for giving local school authorities jurisdiction on how the money is to be spent to carry out the program locally. Every major group in the population is in agreement on this issue.

Parent/Teacher Conferences. In theory, at least, parents should follow the educational progress of their children by holding frequent conferences with their children's teachers. But do they? Obviously, the situation changes from school to school and state to state.

To shed light on the frequency of parent/teacher conferences, this question was asked between April 28 and May 2, 1977, of those parents who had children attending school at that time:

Thinking about your eldest child, have you at any time since the beginning of the school year discussed your child's progress, or problems, with any of your child's teachers?

The findings show that 70 percent of all parents whose eldest child is 12 years of age or under had talked to one or more of that child's teachers about his/her progress since the beginning of the school year. But only 55 percent of parents whose eldest child is 13 years old or over had talked to any teacher.

A second question, asked of those who had talked to one of their child's teachers, sought to discover how many conferences had been held: "About how often [have you talked to your child's teachers] since the beginning of the school year?"

In the case of parents whose eldest child is 12 years of age or younger, the median number of conferences is two.

The same figure—two—is the median for parent/teacher conferences for children who are 13 years of age or older.

From these findings, it appears that during an average period of eight school months, 3 out of 5 parents will talk to teachers about the progress of their child. And, on the average, these parents, during a period of eight months, will hold two such meetings.

Parents' Estimates of Time Children Spend on Television, Homework, Reading. Parents who now have children enrolled in the public or parochial and private schools were asked to give an estimate of the time spent, on a typical school day, by their eldest child on television, homework, and reading.

Since time spent is likely to vary with age, the results are reported separately for children 12 years of age or younger and those 13 years of age or older.

The first question: "(For eldest child) about how much time does he/she spend looking at television after school hours and until he/she goes to bed, on a typical school day?"

(Based on those responding)	By Children 12 Years of Age And Younger %	By Children 13 Years of Age And Older %
No time	2	5
Up to 1 hour	20	26
Over 1 hour to 2 hours	38	33
Over 2 hours to 3 hours	28	17
Over 3 hours to 4 hours	10	11
Over 4 hours	2	8

The second question: "And about how much time on school homework on a typical school day?"

(Based on those responding)	By Children 12 Years of Age And Younger %	By Children 13 Years of Age And Older %
No time	24	15
Up to 15 minutes	3	3
16 to 30 minutes	22	10
Over 30 minutes to 1 hour	29	30
Over 1 hour to 2 hours	17	32
Over 2 hours	5	10

The third question: "And about how much time on reading—not connected with schoolwork—on a typical school day?"

(Based on those responding)	By Children 12 Years of Age And Younger %	By Children 13 Years of Age And Older %
No time	12	28
Up to 30 minutes	43	24
Over 30 minutes to 1 hour	33	28
Over 1 hour	12	20

What this adds up to—for children 12 years or younger—is that the typical child spends approximately two hours viewing television on a typical school day, 30 minutes reading (not schoolwork), and 45 minutes doing homework.

Among children 13 years of age or older, the typical child spends approximately two hours viewing television, 30 minutes reading (not schoolwork), and one hour doing homework. The only time difference between the two groups—15 minutes more on homework for the older group.

Time Limits on Television Viewing. Because the attraction of television is so great for children in most families, many educators have come to the conclusion that definite limits should be placed on the amount of time that parents permit their children to view television during the school week.

To discover how many parents already impose such rules, this question was asked (about the eldest child): "Do you place a definite limit on the amount of time your child spends viewing television during the school week?"

The results—

	Parents Whose Eldest Child Is 12 Years And Under %	Parents Whose Eldest Child Is 13 Years And Over %
Yes, have definite time limit	49	28
No	50	70
Don't know/ no answer	1	2

Safety of Children. One of the interesting facts to emerge in the present survey is the relatively high percentage of parents (1 in 4) who fear for the physical safety of their children in school—and 28 percent fear for the safety of their children in their own neighborhoods. Fewer parents of children who attend parochial school worry about their children's physical safety in school, but still the figure is high—1 in 5.

The first question asked (about the eldest child), "When he/she is at school, do you fear for his/her physical safety?"

	Public School Parents %	Parochial School Parents %
Yes, fear for safety	25	19
No	69	73
Don't know/no answer	6	8

The second question asked: "When your child is outside at play in your own neighborhood, do you fear for his/her safety?"

	Public School Parents %	Parochial School Parents %
Yes, fear for safety	28	30
No	68	61
Don't know/no answer	4	9

This survey, ninth in the annual series, has sought to measure the attitudes of American citizens toward their public schools. Funding this year was provided by/I/D/E/A/, the Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Inc., the educational affiliate of the Charles F. Kettering Foundation.

Each year an effort is made to deal with new issues—as well as with certain perennials from earlier studies—that are of greatest concern to both educators and the public. To accomplish this, letters were sent to educators nationwide, asking for their ideas. In addition, a selected panel of citizens met with staff members of Gallup and /I/D/E/A/ to pinpoint the most important issues for inclusion in this year's survey.

The sample used in this and every survey in this series is described as a modified probability sample. This year a total of 1,506 adults (18 years and older) comprised the national cross section. Personal, in-home interviews were conducted in all areas of the nation and in all types of communities in more than 300 separate locations across the country.

Most parents do not place time limits on their children's TV viewing.

The fieldwork for this study was conducted from April 28 through May 2, 1977.

All questions included in the survey were pretested by the staff of interviewers maintained by the Gallup organizations. □

Reprints of this ninth annual Gallup survey of public attitudes toward the public schools may be ordered from Phi Delta Kappa. The minimum order is 25 copies for $5. Additional copies are 10¢ each. This price includes postage for parcel post delivery; if possible, a check or money order made out to Phi Delta Kappa should accompany orders.

The first five Gallup surveys are available only in the form of a volume published in 1973 by Phi Delta Kappa: *The Gallup Polls of Attitudes Toward Education, 1969-1973.* It is priced at $2.25 a copy or $2 each for five or more copies. Reprints of the 1974, 1975, and 1976 polls are available at the prices noted above for 1977 reprints.

Use this address in ordering: Director of Administrative Services, Phi Delta Kappa, Box 789, Eighth and Union, Bloomington, IN 47401.

Tutoring Vietnamese Refugees

The cafe in Teaneck, New Jersey, was our first classroom. In the daytime, it served Vietnamese and American cuisine, vegetarian plates, and just about anything else its American customers could describe to the staff in basic English. At night, it served as a school, conducted on an informal but intensive basis, for Vietnamese refugees who had just left the big camps at Indiantown Gap, Pennsylvania, or Fort Chaffee, Arkansas, and were looking for jobs, for sponsors, and maybe for hope. The school was organized by the Vietnamese-American Self-Help Foundation, a group of Vietnamese-Americans and others active in helping refugees adapt to America.

I didn't need many credentials to be an unpaid volunteer there. I walked in to do an interview about relief efforts, mentioned that I had once taught English (five weeks as a student teacher in 1967), and was somewhat familiar with Oriental culture (Japanese wife) and with Viet Nam (U.S. Army). I was promptly drafted to teach.

Apprehensive but nevertheless totally unprepared, I dropped in for my first session on a sweltering Monday night in July of 1975. I had no idea who my students were or how much they knew, so I used what one of my college professors in teaching methods called The Organic Technique: I jumped in blind, like a drunk going over Niagara Falls without a barrel.

Four smooth, frightened faces, two with moustaches, gazed up at me with resentful supplication as my interpreter, a Vietnamese woman who spoke fluent English, introduced me to my students. Oddly enough, this took about 10 minutes of excited, voluble conversation and produced wide-eyed awe in my four students. Nobody ever told me what the interpreter said, but I have a hunch she told them I was the Town Hangman of Teaneck, New Jersey, or some such menacing tiding, because for about the first two hours of class, the students were afraid to speak.

My students were Son, 14 years old, painfully thin, with a precociously aged and wise-looking face; Dao, his sister, 15 years old, slender, suspicious, with sad eyes that were slightly too large for their sockets; Lam, their cousin-in-law, about 27 years old, skinny, handsome, and painfully polite; and Tai, Son and Dao's cousin, also in his late twenties, a good-humored young rogue with a slightly sinister air that he seemed to enjoy flaunting. Later, the class was joined by 17-year-old Anh, Son and Dao's older sister, and by 31-year-old Tieng, a friend of Tai's, who had a black belt in karate and nurtured a taste for gallows humor, red wine, and the philosophy of Nietzsche.

The three older men—Lam, Tai, Tieng—spoke good French and no English beyond "Yes, Sir," "No, Sir," and "I don't understand." The three kids had taken two or three years of English in high school, but their early efforts led me to believe that Vietnamese high school English classes can't be much better than some American high school French or Spanish classes.

The first class was show-and-tell; I would pick up an object and pronounce its name. They would repeat the word until they had it right. Then we would write it in notebooks.

Fortunately, the cafe, which had changed owners more times than Alsace-Lorraine, had plenty of interesting bric-a-brac to be catalogued: miniature ceramic elephants with howdahs full of toothpicks, wagon-wheel chandeliers with protuberant light bulbs, paintings of Viet Nam, paintings of America, and cooking utensils.

After we named the objects in the restaurant, we took on the car, naming the parts, showing what they did. As I explained, they probably understood none of the words, though they nodded politely. Some of the words were easy —*lights, wheel*; others, like *windshield wiper*, were a bit much for a first lesson.

Back in the restaurant, I got out my pad for a review. As I took my eyes off the class, Dao said, softly but distinctly, "I don't like Americans!" Whereupon the three men began to punch and kick her.

I looked up and grinned cryptically. "Me either," I said. The three stopped

By JOHN KOSTER
Reporter, The Record, *Hackensack, New Jersey.*

hitting the girl and gaped at me with their hands over their mouths. By becoming incomprehensible, I had become mysterious, and hence, powerful. When the class ended, I told them I'd be back next week.

"No! Not next week! You come tomorrow!" the younger girl demanded. Everybody else mumbled agreement.

We settled for Thursday.

And so, aided by my wife, I set out on a year's intensive teaching of English, with incidental forays into American history, Western culture, photography, Indian lore, chess, the Crusades, and journalism as only the reporter knows it. For myself, I learned some Vietnamese, a good deal about the history and culture of the Vietnamese people—and volumes about their cuisine, since all my classes were conducted in or near various restaurants.

At one point, I was teaching four nights a week and preparing lessons most of the weekend.

The first six weeks of the course were the most grueling, particularly for the three kids about to start American high school. I had to bring their English to the level of their American peers.

From show-and-tell, I advanced to drawing cartoons and writing out simple sentences.

My students learned words of one and two syllables easily and were good mimics of sounds, though the infamous *th*, a global rarity, caused plenty of trouble.

Vietnamese is tonal, and the one-syllable words change meaning by the tone-value the speaker gives them. In the Roman alphabet (used since the French conquest in the 1860's), marks above the vowels indicate—among other things—differences in tone. Through shifts in tone, the word *ma* can mean "mother," "ghost," or a few other things. To Westerners, who do not speak tone languages, the same word might appear to have five different meanings.

Multisyllabic words, however, are virtually unknown in Vietnamese. When I drew a picture of a rhinoceros and a hippopotamus, the class grinned and recognized the animals immediately. When I told them the names, they almost wept. We compromised on *rhino* and *hippo*.

Another chronic problem was verbs. In Vietnamese, there are no verb tenses as English speakers think of them: I go to work today, I go to work yesterday, I go to work next year. Much as we practiced tenses in English, even after my students had a functional vocabulary of a thousand words or more, they kept making verb-tense mistakes.

The same is true of plurals—there are no plural suffixes on nouns. The *s* endings and, worse yet, internal vowel changes (m*a*n, m*e*n, wom*a*n, wom*e*n) are unfamiliar, so long after the students built up a sizable vocabulary and learned spellings of words, they had problems with plurals.

Having initiated the class in the foibles of English, I had to find suitable reading material for them. I fell back on poets many schools have exiled to college survey textbooks: Longfellow, for instance, and Oliver Wendell Holmes. I chose these for a variety of reasons. The poetry uses simple ideas and a basic vocabulary without any of the metaphors or semantic complexities of more recent poetry that have confused many Americans.

Since by moving quickly down the page of verse we could cover two or three pages per lesson, the poems also provided students with the crucial illusion that they were making fast progress; reading a single page of prose might have dragged on all night and led to feelings of intense frustration. Because they rhyme, the poems provided at least some sense of pronunciation, and because they were all more than 60 years old, I could reproduce them without getting anyone's permission.

I also used *Grimm's Fairy Tales*, which proved to be popular with my students—the stories had traveled to Viet Nam and the students already knew the plots. I wasn't aware of this until Dao brought it to my attention rather abruptly.

"This Vietnamese story—not American," she snapped when she began to get the drift of "Little Red Riding Hood."

"No," I said.

"What you say—American?" she demanded, as if to plumb the depths of my ethnocentric chauvinism.

"No. Not Vietnamese. Not American. European."

"How you know dat?" she demanded.

"In Viet Nam, you have wolf?" I asked.

"No. We have tiger! No wolf."

"In Europe, they have wolf. Story comes from Europe."

She pondered this briefly, then nodded with one brief bob of her head. I was acquitted of the charge of ethnocentrism because of my purely logical argument. Shortly after this exchange, she decided that she wanted to be a lawyer.

We read John G. Neihardt's *Black Elk Speaks*, a poetic but factual account of Sioux history from the Indian viewpoint. The vocabulary, which is eloquent but simple, made this perhaps the all-time favorite. After about four months of study, we got through one whole chapter without defining a single word.

My students responded to Black Elk's almost total rejection of "American" civilization. As Son summed it up in a written essay: "Black Elk is the Indian. He doesn't like whites, and whites don't like him." Then, unseen by the others, he started to cry.

His reaction to Black Elk's troubles pointed up the powerful culture shock the Vietnamese students experienced when they entered an American high school. Besides overcoming their language difficulties, they had to mix with two racial groups different from their own (whites and blacks) and to adapt to a society whose values were almost totally the reverse of their own.

To cite a major difference: In Vietnamese secondary schools, students are seen and not often heard. They are expected to sit in silence, taking notes or listening with arms folded while the teacher lectures.

The students I taught were terrified when they first went to an American school, expecting to become the class whipping boys or whipping girls. Their first impressions of lax American school discipline led to relief, quickly followed by contempt.

"In Viet Nam, student afraid of teacher," Son said. "In America, teacher afraid of student."

The schools were no more prepared for the refugees, it seems, than the

I used what one of my professors in methods called The Organic Technique: I jumped in blind, like a drunk going over Niagara Falls without a barrel.

refugees were for the schools. After finding out that the youngsters I tutored couldn't really cope with English or U.S. history with only six weeks of English instruction, the powers-that-be dumped them in study hall or suggested that they study crafts.

Their counselor rallied to their defense and tried to set up a remedial English program within the school system. She taught them once a week, and these sessions, augmented by my own, allowed them to scrape past the English requirements through some bureaucratic process that escapes me. In math, interestingly enough, they were so far advanced that they were able to do better-than-passing work without understanding much English. The oldest girl scored a 680 in math in her college boards, though she could barely understand the instructions in the test book. At the same time, she was close to failing every subject that required much English comprehension.

The counselor's good offices extended beyond her once-a-week sessions as English teacher. She tried (without much success) to explain her version of American values and lifestyle to the youngsters. They smiled a lot, nodded politely, and only grumbled to me and to their parents that her ideas were weird. The fact that the two weeks she had spent in Japan some years before convinced her that she understood Asians brought grimaces from the Vietnamese.

"She always talk about Japan, never about Viet Nam," Dao said. "I know my country is small and weak, but if she is a gentleman, she not say so."

The general American insistence that Vietnamese culture was an offshoot of Chinese culture was similarly unappreciated. "She say my country take from China. I don't like her say that. It's true, I know, but I don't like."

The map of Europe was a void to the kids. Scotland, Ireland, Greece, and Italy, so important to English-speaking or Western culture, were terrae incognitae. The Vietnamese didn't know European history either, and the abyss of their ignorance was terrifying to them. Dao summed it up by hefting a European history textbook almost as thick as she was and shaking her head, "When I see this book, I despair."

The confusions ran through almost everything else the students experienced. To Americans, the occult is either a Halloween joke or something sinister and sacrilegious; to the Vietnamese, the Ouija board (imported from France, though few Vietnamese would care to admit this) is as common as the Bible or religious statues would be in a Protestant or Catholic home.

Many Vietnamese undertake few serious actions without consulting the ghosts or the astrologers, who use a 12-year lunar cycle, as opposed to the 12-month cycle used in Western astrology. Spirits and ghosts are very real to the traditional Vietnamese, though the educated and cynical scoff at such things. Telling the Vietnamese that "There's no such thing as a ghost" brings about bland nods and private sneers. "Americans don't know ghosts. They're mistaken."

Even more shocking than Western rationalism was Western socializing. The Christmas party at the counselor's home was unforgettable. Colonel X, the students' father, was invited to bring his whole family. My wife and I went, too.

Colonel X was plied with more liquor than he wanted to drink while the counselor's kids rather oafishly ignored the Colonel's kids.

In the end, it was the culture shock, rather than the educational problems, that caused most of the misery for my students. American manners and mores, as construed by the Vietnamese kids and their parents, were not only inscrutable but obnoxious. Various well-meaning Americans blundered through their brittle little world like real-life elephants in a glass menagerie, unaware of the damage they caused. Missionaries insulted them without really meaning to. Schoolmates made appointments to study or go to the movies and didn't keep them, unaware that they had caused traumatic pangs of rejection.

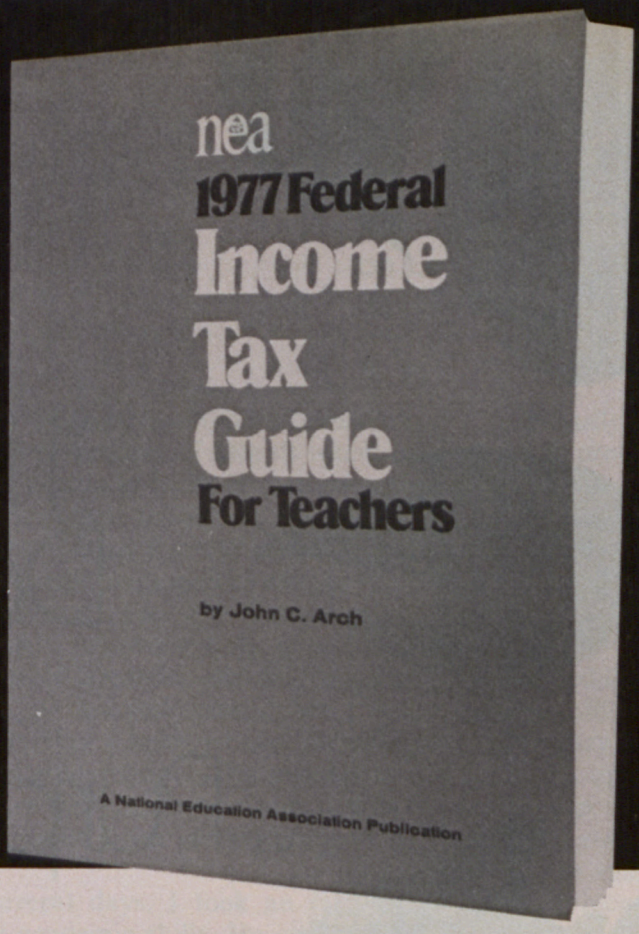
The kids made a few friends, but, as a rule, they were with kids from families of recent immigrants from India and Japan who shared some of their old-world conservatism. The lack of Vietnamese to socialize with became unbearable for the Colonel and his wife, and for the kids as their attempts to become "American" failed. After a year, they moved to an enclave of Vietnamese in California, despite the fact that jobs were said to be impossible to find there.

"We have a saying in our country," the Colonel said sadly, after thanking me with great sincerity for teaching his children and for befriending him, "the lake may be small and dirty, but it's our own lake. I don't want to live with Americans."

Nothing—not even his own stated dislike of going on welfare (and he and his wife worked like horses, six 12-hour days a week, the whole time I knew them)—could convince him that there might be some advantages to life among middle-class whites.

"You have, in your country, the Indian," he said. "They want to live with the other Indian. That is me." And I think that he summed up the tragedy of his life even better than he knew. □

NEA Instruction and Professional Development has developed an Infopac (#10) on *Indochinese Refugee Education*. To get a free copy, send your request to NEA Instruction and Professional Development, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.



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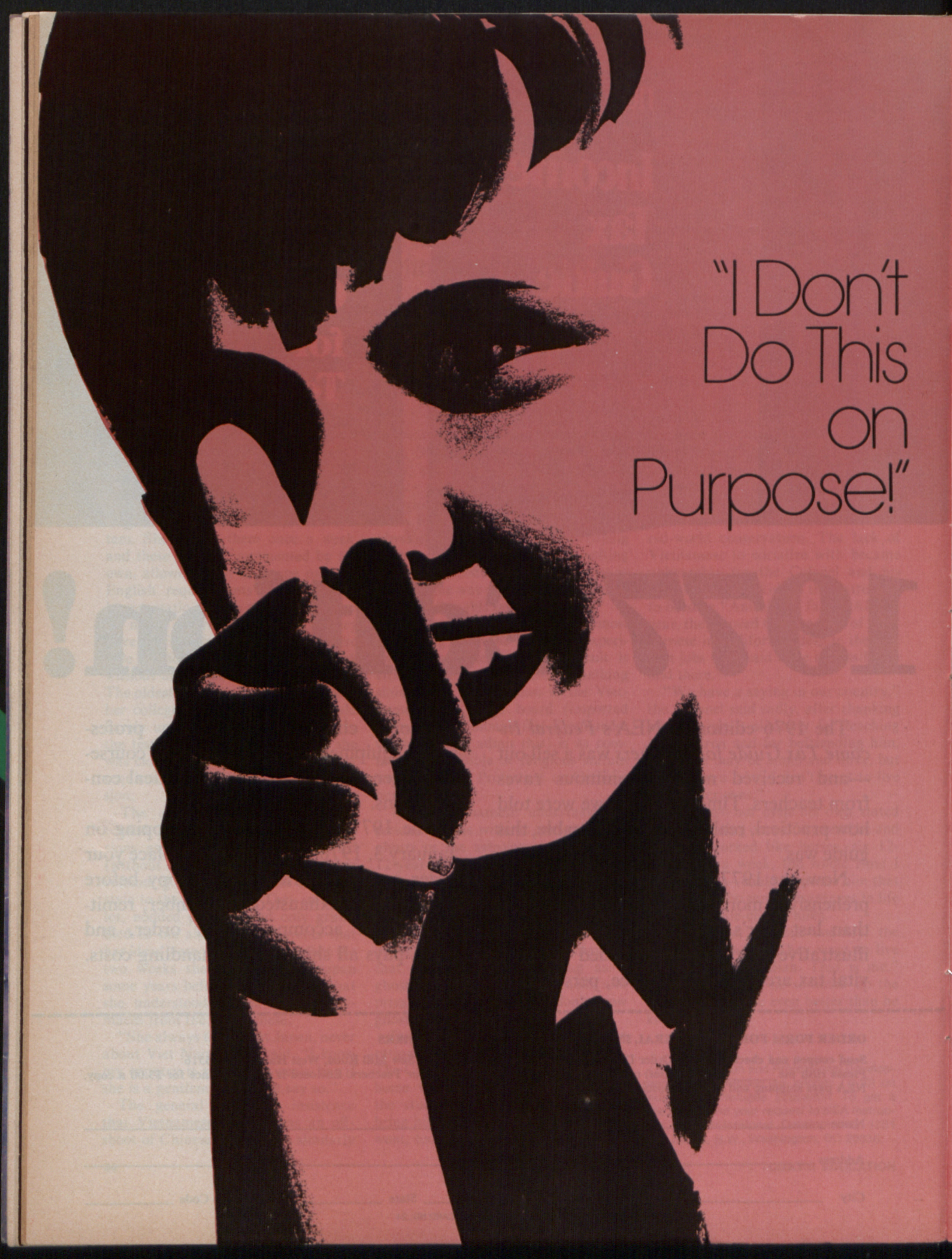

"I Don't
Do This
on
Purpose!"

Special Feature
on Learning
Disabilities

"Two seconds!" I muttered to myself. Incredibly, that seemed to be the limit of Dean's attention span. The child was unable to focus his attention on any one task, person, object. Indeed, he wasn't even staying in any one place! Dean's sturdy body bounced into and off of people and things indiscriminately; his blue eyes flitted constantly over the classroom; his freckled nose was poked into everything.

I would have noticed Dean in the first days of school just because of this restlessness, but I was already watching for him. I knew he was repeating second grade and would probably have academic problems. When I saw how restless he was, it didn't seem likely that he would learn second grade skills this time either.

Over the next several days, I took an informal inventory of Dean's academic skills. He could identify the letters of the alphabet, could write his name, and could recognize a few simple one-syllable words. His math skills seemed adequate; he had acquired the basic concepts of addition and subtraction. The child, however, could not read, could not spell any words (other than his name), and had no phonetic or word analysis skills. He could write nothing without my guidance, and even then it was struggle for us both.

Dean had difficulty in following oral directions. He was always the one out of step—on the wrong page in the wrong book, in the wrong line at the wrong time. Frankly, had the other 27 children not been on the right page in the right book, in the right line at the right time, I would have suspected a direction-giving problem on my part rather than a direction-following one on his.

Dean also reacted intensely to frustrating or unpleasant situations and often displayed inappropriate classroom behavior. Overly loud and prolonged laughter, shouting, and temper tantrums were his hallmarks. The music and gym teachers and the cafeteria aide also reported that Dean acted this way when he was with them.

By DALE KESSINGER
Second Grade Teacher
as told to
JUDY SINGLETON
Intermediate Resource Teacher,
Fairfax County (Virginia) Public Schools.

Obviously I had a problem on my hands. What *kind* of problem was less obvious. Since Dean had some math skills and possessed a good fund of general information, I dismissed the idea that he was retarded or a slow learner. Despite his disruptive behavior, Dean appeared to be frustrated, not malicious. *Emotionally disturbed* wasn't the label for him either.

I turned for help to Rosemary Armore, the school's learning disabilities resource teacher. After some preliminary investigation, she asked for a psychological work-up on Dean.

The reports confirmed my suspicion that Dean had average intelligence. They also showed that Dean had deficits in auditory discrimination, auditory memory, auditory blending, auditory closure, visual discrimination, visual figure-ground, and visual closure. The reports also noted that Dean could not concentrate on any incoming stimulus. (See glossary for the meaning of these terms.)

Dean was admitted to the learning disabilities resource program. Ms. Armore had already been doing diagnostic teaching with Dean; now she would work with him regularly, one half-hour session a day, four days a week. The rest of the time was up to me.

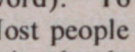
I don't mean that exactly. Although I had the primary responsibility for Dean's education, Ms. Armore gave Dean and me much assistance—tutoring, appropriate materials, and many suggestions for the classroom program. Dean's parents were supportive of their son and helped him at home in an environment less distracting than a classroom of second graders. In addition, I had a student teacher for several months, and I had a good group of children who allowed me to give Dean the individual attention he needed—and demanded.

Reading was the high priority area for Dean. The student teacher took him on as an individual tutoring project. Dean's reading skills were too poor and his social behavior too immature to allow him to take part in group reading instruction. Ms. Armore supplied Dean with cassette tapes to help him develop his auditory skills. Tapes were successful learning devices for Dean because the headphones blocked out extraneous classroom noises and helped him attend to the one task at hand. Sitting facing the wall or in a carrel-type desk reduced visual distractions for him.

Moreover, Dean was able to rewind the tape and hear the instructions repeated whenever he forgot what he needed to do.

Dean performed many kinds of copying exercises so as to learn to pay attention to the direction and sequence of images. He used pegboard activities and colored blocks as well as pencil and paper to reproduce designs. Sequencing—getting things like letters or numbers in the correct order—is a basic proficiency needed in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Instruction in sound/letter correspondence was an important part of Dean's program. Because he needed to be active, we incorporated motor activities into his reading tasks, and this drained some of his endless energy. He manipulated large phonovisual cards which could be placed on the floor or scattered about the classroom. He fed cards and tapes through recording machines, pushed buttons, sorted cards, plugged in headphones, stored equipment.

To develop Dean's sight vocabulary, particularly for phrases, we printed and then outlined the words to show him the clues he could get from configuration (the shape of the word). "To his barn" looks like this:  . Most people use such word recognition skills unconsciously, but most learning disabled kids have to be taught the strategies that come naturally to others.

Dean responded well to a variation of the Fernald method of learning spelling. He practiced spelling at the board where he could use large body movements. After I wrote the word in cursive, Dean traced its outline several times in chalk before tracing it several times with his index finger. As he went over the written word, he would repeat the sequence of letters. Next, Dean "skywrote" the word in the air, eyes closed. At last he tried to spell the word on the board himself.

In math, Dean's greatest problems were in copying correctly and in focusing on one problem at a time. He would often omit numerals or confuse their sequence. I taught him to use a ruler to divide his paper into boxes, one box for each problem. When space was restricted and his attention focused in one box at a time, Dean was more successful at math. He continued to make progress conceptually as well.

Because Dean had auditory and visual deficits and difficulty in following directions, I wanted to make sure he was getting accurate information. I did such things as check to see whether his eyes were on my face before I began to speak. At the beginning of the school year, I often had had to gently turn his head in the right direction. I also tried to stand near Dean when I spoke to reduce the number of possible distractions between my lips and his ears. Another technique was to write or point to information on the board as I was explaining it. I figured that if Dean or some others didn't hear what I said, they just might see it.

It was important that either I or one of the students constantly check to make sure that Dean was using

Glossary of Common LD Terms

Auditory blending—the ability to recognize individual letter sounds and to put those sounds together to form a word.

Auditory perception—the ability to interpret what is heard.

* *Auditory discrimination*—the ability to distinguish among words and sounds that are nearly alike. [Children who have difficulty with auditory discrimination can't "hear" letters and may confuse *map* and *nap* or *lip* and *dip*, for example. Therefore, they may have trouble with spelling.]

Closure—the ability to recognize a whole, especially when parts are missing, and to fill in the missing parts automatically [for example, knowing what is said even if a word or two is not heard; reading a word when one letter is missing].

Cognition—thinking and processing skills. [See definition for *processing* below.]

Dyslexia—a disorder of children who fail to attain the skills of reading when taught with conventional techniques. [It includes much more than the tendency to reverse letters and numbers, though that is one symptom.]

Etiology—the cause of a condition.

Expressive language skills—the ability to communicate using speech, gestures, or written language.

Figure-ground perception—the ability to focus on the part of a visual stimulus that is important, such as one math problem on a page of problems.

Hyperactivity—a state of constant and excessive motion.

* *Individualized education program* (often called Individual Educational Plan or IEP)—a written statement composed for each handicapped child that includes present level of educational performance, annual goals, short-term instructional objectives, specific educational services to be provided, and evaluation procedures, including a time schedule for remediation. [Based on PL 94-142.]

* *Least restrictive environment*—educational placement that ensures that, to the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped children are educated with children who are not handicapped. [Based on PL 94-142.]

Memory—the ability to store and retrieve previous perceptions. [People with auditory memory deficits

the correct process or was working on the correct page. Laboriously working through a challenging assignment only to discover it is the wrong assignment is aggravating to any child, let alone a learning disabled one with a characteristically low level of frustration.

When teaching or giving instructions, I never raised my voice, no matter how sorely tried. After all, someone who is shouting is more difficult to understand than someone who is calm.

A large problem in dealing with Dean was his insatiable demand for immediate gratification and help. He could not put up his hand and wait a few minutes like most students. No, Dean was out of his seat and at my elbow in a flash, demanding "What's a five-letter word starting with the blend *cl*?" Worse yet, he might holler his question across the room, disturbing everyone.

Even when Dean knew the answer, he was anxious about its correctness. He required positive and immediate reinforcement. Programmed materials which were self-checking met this need in part. He didn't have to wait for me to tell him whether he had done an exercise correctly. On the other hand, the self-checking materials tempted him to look ahead to ensure success, and a printed word was a less satisfactory reinforcer for Dean than a smile or pat on the back.

By the end of the year, I felt that I had earned a degree in counseling. Since Dean was often physically and verbally abusive to his classmates, he and I had several sessions every week about the appropriateness of his behavior. Dean usually responded well during our talks and could list alternate responses more acceptable than settling arguments with his fists. At my suggestion he would apologize to those he had offended, and life would return to an even keel—until he flew off the handle again. Although Dean was not one of the most popular children in the class, surprisingly the kids accepted him. In fact, because of his love of sports, he had many friends among his classmates.

Dean made academic progress during the school year, especially in spelling, which he enjoyed studying. His math skills were good. His reading skills, however, didn't show the steady improvement that I had hoped for.

He showed improvement in specific auditory and visual skills. His attention span increased somewhat, although it still was usually only a few minutes. I was pleased to see that he was developing a more positive self-concept, for how children feel about themselves is a key to their learning.

Certainly Dean has, and will continue to have, learning problems. And his problems will cause problems for others. Nonetheless, I admire his desire to learn and his willingness to work. He has a good sense of humor and was fun to be with (most of the time). As he once earnestly assured me, "I don't do this on purpose." □

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quickly forget what they have just been told; people with visual memory deficits forget what they have seen, including how letters look and what order they are in.]

Mixed laterality or *lateral confusion*—the tendency to perform some actions with the right hand or foot and others with the left, i.e., the shifting from right to left for certain activities.

Modality—the pathways through which an individual receives information and thereby learns. The primary learning modalities are auditory, visual, tactile/kinesthetic. Some individuals learn better through one modality than through another.

Perception—the process of organizing and interpreting information obtained through the senses. [The modalities of perception include visual, auditory, and tactile/kinesthetic.]

Perceptual disorder—inadequate awareness of objects, relations, and qualities because of difficulty in interpreting information obtained through the senses.

Perceptually handicapped—a term applied to a person who has difficulty in learning caused by perceptual disorders.

* *Processing*—internal thinking skills such as generalizing, abstracting, classifying, and integrating.

Receptive language skills—listening and reading, the skills of receiving language that is spoken or written by others.

Social perception—the ability to interpret the social environment [for example, being aware of people's moods and realizing the causes and effects of one's own behavior].

* *Visual discrimination*—the ability to distinguish among shapes, colors, numbers, and other visual stimuli that look similar. Someone with a difficulty in this area may confuse "b" and "d" or "6" and "9."

Visual-motor coordination—the ability to coordinate vision with the movement of the body or its parts. [This is a necessary skill for many academic activities, such as handwriting, mathematics, and physical education.]

Visual perception—the ability to interpret what is seen.

Except for those marked with an asterisk * , the above definitions are paraphrased from *Children with Learning Disabilities* by Janet W. Lerner, 2nd ed. © 1976. Houghton Mifflin Co.

Learning Disabilities

The field of learning disabilities is a puzzlement. One reason is that children with learning disabilities usually have strengths that can obscure their weaknesses. They may not be able to write but be able to tell wonderful stories; they may not be able to follow simple directions but be able to put together complicated model cars. They may not be able to find their way around the school but be able to rebuild an automobile engine.

Children who are able to perform well on some tasks but perform poorly on other tasks are said to have discrepancies in their learning capabilities. Such discrepancies may also be observed when comparing their current performance, e.g., being unable to read at grade level, with their intelligence, average or above average. Specialists refer to this predicament as a discrepancy between performance and potential ability.

Since learning disabled students are so capable in some areas, teachers sometimes incorrectly attribute their learning difficulties to lack of motivation, emotional problems, or a myriad of other causes. Unlike physical handicaps, which are relatively easy to diagnose, a learning disability is a hidden handicap, not easily seen and often complicated by adjustment problems.

The new federal law on education of the handicapped, PL 94-142, gives the following definition of learning disabilities:

Children with specific learning disabilities are those children who have a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which disorder may manifest itself in imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations. Such disorders include such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. Such term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor handicaps, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

[See the article by Senator Edward Brooke in this feature for a more complete discussion of federal legislation and handicapped children.]

Perhaps the most significant aspect of this definition is the last sentence, which indicates what a learning disability is *not*. Moreover, although some LD children appear hyperactive, not all hyperactive children are learning disabled.

Although the concept of learning disabilities has only recently been defined, the disabilities themselves are not new. King Karl XI (1655-97) was judged one of Sweden's wisest kings but had difficulty with reading and spelling all his life. Thomas Edison could not seem to learn arithmetic by rote, yet he made immeasurable contributions to science. General George Patton never learned to read well, though he could memorize whole lectures and texts. Albert Einstein was described as "mentally slow, unsociable, and adrift forever in foolish dreams," yet his "dreams" were of the highest mental caliber. Though not all persons with learning problems become so distinguished, they all can compensate to some degree for their deficiency.

A number of theories have been advanced about the cause of learning disabilities. Among these are cerebral interference, inherent neurological tendencies, and mixed dominance. However, many authorities today are suggesting that this last condition, left/right confusion in the brain (which might be manifested by a boy who writes with his left hand but kicks a ball with his right foot), does not appear to cause learning disabilities.

While no definite conclusions have been drawn about the major cause of learning disabilities, it is felt that people are not "cured" of their handicap. They can learn to cope and to compensate to various degrees, but the learning weakness will always remain. It is for these reasons, the lack of knowledge about the cause and the absence of a known cure, that educators emphasize symptoms and remediation rather than etiology.

But basic research is searching for the causes of such disabilities, and when the causes are determined, some think prevention or "cure" may be possible.

For many years, children with learning problems were considered brain-injured. Thirty years ago, A. A. Strauss and L. Lehtinen, early pioneers in special education, described the brain-injured child as one

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....a Puzzlement

who "may show disturbances in perception, thinking, and emotional behavior . . . disturbances [that] prevent or impede a normal learning process."

In the early 1960's, the term *brain-injured* was replaced by the term *learning disabilities,* emphasizing the behavior, not the unknown cause, of learning problems. All brain-injured children do not have learning problems, and all children with learning problems do not show clear evidence of brain damage. One of the leaders in the field, Samuel A. Kirk, defined a learning disability as "a retardation, disorder, or delayed development . . . of speech, language, reading, writing, arithmetic, or other school subjects. . . . It is not the result of mental retardation, sensory deprivation, or cultural or instructional factors." This definition closely parallels the definition later used in PL 94-142 (stated above).

Most estimates indicate that perhaps between 2 and 10 percent of schoolchildren have a learning disability requiring special teaching techniques. In recent years, the federal government has recognized learning disabilities as a handicapping condition deserving financial support. Consequently, Congress passed the Education of the Handicapped Act in 1970 and included funds for professional training, research, and demonstration activities for children with learning disabilities.

More recently, in 1975, Congress passed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, PL 94-142 mentioned earlier, which revises previous legislation on education of the handicapped, including the learning disabled.

A learning disability is difficult to diagnose in a young child. To date, there are no foolproof neurological tests that diagnose a learning disability. Therefore, the burden for early identification often falls on classroom teachers. It is generally agreed that the earlier the diagnosis, the better the prognosis.

Because of the current interest in learning disabilities, there has been an increase of specialists in the field, and the potential for helping a disabled child is greater than it was in the past. Today in many school systems, specialists are available to help the regular classroom teacher diagnose a child's problem, devise an educational program, and then remediate the problem within the regular classroom. However, the new emphasis on educating handicapped children in the "least restrictive environment" places the responsibility of teaching LD children on the classroom teacher to a greater extent than ever before. Only massive in-service education for *all* teachers can make the new law into reality. (See the article on in-service education by Bonnie Jones for a more extensive discussion of this problem.)

As PL 94-142 goes into effect, procedures for identifying and placing handicapped children will become more comprehensive and explicit than they have been in many school systems.

The classroom teacher still has the major responsibility of recognizing students with learning problems and then referring them for appropriate support. Most teachers have taught children with learning disabilities, though they may not have been categorized as such.

When a teacher suspects that a child may have a learning disability, he or she usually refers the child to the learning disabilities specialist. In many systems, the specialist will then meet with the teacher, observe the child informally, and confer with the parents and get their permission to test the child. Then, the specialist will work with the child, using formal testing procedures and informal learning tasks to determine the child's strengths and weaknesses. The specialist will be looking for the preferred modality for learning, such as the visual or the auditory mode. The specialist will also note weak areas, such as deficiencies in visual discrimination, auditory perception, or visual-motor skills (see glossary). For example, a child who gets letters mixed up when spelling (*was* for *saw*) or reads *god* for *dog* may have visual-processing difficulties. Although the eyes are seeing correctly, the brain is not receiving the information properly. Likewise, a child who hears but can't remember what he or she hears may have an auditory memory problem. This child may turn to the wrong page in the book or attempt the wrong assignment when he or she has to rely solely on oral directions.

After diagnosis, all persons concerned with the child, including the parents, develop an individualized education program, or IEP (PL 94-142 requires such a plan), which will specify the goals of the child's instructional program and the methods for achieving them. Special adaptive techniques can be designed to help the student compensate for his or her

weaknesses. Just as you would not expect a person on crutches to run a 50-yard dash, an LD child with an auditory deficiency cannot routinely be expected to learn to read primarily via phonics. Some regular classroom teachers are helped in their planning for these children by thinking of students with auditory-processing difficulties as deaf and those with visual-processing problems as blind. Although LD students with these problems can see and hear, teaching methods that are helpful with deaf and blind students often work with these LD students.

Most LD children can remain in the regular classroom and learn there through adaptive techniques (PL 94-142 requires that to the extent appropriate all the handicapped be educated in the "least restrictive environment"); others require additional support by the resource teacher or specialist, who either acts as a consultant to the regular teacher or actually teaches the child for short periods of time. A number of LD children can remain in the regular classroom most of the time but require a special resource program. Still another group needs a self-contained situation in which all subjects are taught by the specialist, not by the regular classroom teacher. Another group needs a special school in which their entire education is in the hands of educational specialists. Finally, some students will need a private school or institution that can provide services not available through the public schools.

A California high school teacher of the learning disabled estimates that 75 percent of the students with learning problems leave high school unemployed, unemployable, and with no plans for job or job training. A recent General Accounting Office study found that 26 percent of the incarcerated delinquents tested in two states had primary learning problems (learning disabilities). It is not known whether such problems helped cause the children to turn to delinquency, but the hypothesis seems worth investigating.

Most students with learning disabilities do not become criminals. Rather, their frustrations and low self-esteem force them into passive behavior; they sit in class and quietly struggle. They may even graduate and enter into jobs much less rewarding and demanding than those they might have been able to attain if they had had the appropriate education. An able math student may not be able to enter college because he cannot read well. Thus, skills and knowledge are often wasted.

A learning disability is a lifelong problem. Persons with a learning disability, however, can compensate and can become contributing citizens. Perhaps PL 94-142 holds the key to the door that has locked LD students in frustrating, unproductive lives for generations. □

Ways To Recognize an LD Child

Children with learning disabilities may exhibit any combination of characteristics in the classroom that inhibit "learning efficiency." Such characteristics usually reflect some discrepancy between the child's age and the way he or she acts and include the following:

Classroom Behavior
- Moves constantly
- Has difficulty beginning or completing tasks
- Is often tardy or absent
- Is generally quiet or withdrawn
- Has difficulty with peer relationships
- Is disorganized
- Is easily distracted
- Displays inconsistencies in behavior
- Seems to misunderstand oral directions

Academic Symptoms

- Reading
  - Loses place, repeats words
  - Does not read fluently
  - Confuses similar words and letters
  - Uses fingers to follow along
  - Does not read willingly
- Arithmetic
  - Has difficulty associating number with symbol
  - Cannot remember math facts
  - Confuses columns and spacing
  - Has difficulty with story problems
  - Fails to comprehend math concepts
- Spelling
  - Uses incorrect order of letters in words
  - Has difficulty associating correct sound with appropriate letter
  - Reverses letters and words (mirror image)
- Writing
  - Cannot stay on line
  - Has difficulty copying from board or other source
  - Uses poor written expression for age
  - Is slow in completing written work
  - Uses cursive writing and printing in same assignment

Verbal
- Hesitates often when speaking
- Has poor verbal expression for age

Motor
- Displays poor coordination
- Has problems of balance
- Confuses right and left
- Lacks rhythm in movements, loses sequence
- Has poor muscle strength for age

Teaching LD Adolescents

Having several learning disabled students in my regular eighth grade English classroom is not unusual. At our school, students are grouped in English and mathematics according to their previous achievement. Learning disabled kids usually make up about one-third of my low-achieving class.

The school attempts to limit a class like this to around 20 students so as to maximize individual attention and to minimize distraction. Moreover, academic classes for low-achieving students are generally taught in the morning when the students are more alert and motivated than they are in the afternoon.

In some ways, LD students are not very different from other low-achieving students. None have been having much success in English: Their reading levels are generally low, and their spelling is poor. Therefore, plans that are successful for the LD student are also successful for the remainder of the class.

Nevertheless, differences remain. Through observation over the years, I've developed four criteria which I feel identify the LD adolescent. These are the characteristics I look for before referring a struggling student to the LD resource teacher for evaluation.

One is frustration over schoolwork and, it sometimes seems, over life in general. Another is visual or visual/motor problems such as unusual or labored handwriting. A third trait is the poor quality of expressive language, particularly written language. (Some students' oral and written language both are of low quality. Others' oral language appears satisfactory but their written language does not.) The fourth trait is disorganization: not knowing what page the assignment is on, what the assignment is; not remembering to bring textbook or pencils to class. These kids have trouble getting it all together, following instructions, completing projects.

By MARGARETTE BROWN
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as told to
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Despite these problems which impede them from learning to read and write well, LD students can deal with the eighth grade curriculum. English is about ideas and the coherent communication of those ideas. The ideas and the communication do not have to be read and written to be understood and transmitted. The LD student (whose intelligence, according to the standard definition of learning disability, is average or above average) can learn and manipulate concepts despite language handicaps.

I adjust my instructional programs for classes of poor readers and writers that contain LD students to allow them to be successful despite their handicaps. I often borrow techniques that I use with my gifted and talented classes.

Reading level is the major consideration. First I find out my students' reading comprehension levels. Then I select reading material as appropriate to those levels as possible. Quite frequently I can't find reading assignments that are suitable in content, in reading level, and in length. In these cases, I adapt the material for the class. The first rule is to keep reading assignments short. For individual work, I make tapes of difficult selections available for the poorest readers to listen to as they follow along in the text. Good readers in other classes undertake the taping for extra credit, and a cooperative speech teacher has students contribute tapes to our listening library.

Another way of adapting difficult reading is to make up study guides for the reader. Such guides take several forms. A glossary can be of value. An outline of the story or a list of important points helps the student focus on what is pertinent on the page—something that is difficult for many LD students.

Of course, I search for the most interesting reading material or think of novel ways to present standard material. My class last year loved *Beowulf* when we studied it as an example of the monster story genre.

Although the students enjoyed *Beowulf*, they couldn't concentrate on it for long. Finding an attention span of 10 to 15 minutes the norm, I planned three or four activities for each 50-minute class period—perhaps oral reading of a new section of the story, class discussion of our outline of previous or new story action, individual seatwork on vocabulary

activities, or student dramatization of some aspect of the story. A trunk of hats and props helps break down students' reserve.

Learning activities that include movement are big hits with students who have trouble sitting still long. Role playing and reading plays are favorite activities of some LD students. They also enjoy relay races to the board to write or point out specific information. Making and playing Bingo-style games based on a story's characters or the types of sentences are beneficial.

For classes with LD students, I use many information sources other than textbooks—records, movies, filmstrips, and tapes. For instance, Bill Cosby's albums have excellent examples of concepts like metaphor, hyperbole, irony, and satire.

I often use the school's videotape system to show packaged items from the library or tapes of TV shows. I frequently tape class activities, particularly class-written and produced plays. Sometimes the class and I watch productions without the sound, and students try to infer what the dialogue might be. This type of activity requires them to focus on body language and facial expressions, the gamut of subtle signals which LD students are usually slow to pick up. The self-esteem of the class receives quite a boost when the volume is turned up and the actual dialogue matches what they had decided upon.

A warning: It's a big mistake to think that kids will watch anything that moves. They are discriminating and will literally turn off what they don't understand. This activity works only when students have been prepared for what they will see or hear and when the presentation is clearly related to what they are studying.

Even spelling and grammar can be approached in the nonreading and nonwriting ways mentioned above. The class can be divided into groups of four to play spelling and sentence-making games—a variety of excellent and inexpensive commercial products are available. Here again, the teacher must closely supervise the games and integrate them into classroom studies.

Assignments and tests also can be in nonreading and nonwriting form. I often have students make posters illustrating prepositions. One student clearly illustrated the word *between* by cutouts of a sports car hemmed in by two tractor trailers. After the students examine the posters, the class guesses the preposition from the visual clues.

Open-ended questions and recall items on tests are frustrating for LD students because of their memory and organization deficits. I consider it unfair to test students only in their areas of weakness.

So far, I have discussed ways I present the English curriculum to LD students so as to circumvent their difficulties in reading and writing and reduce their frustration. LD students are further characterized, however, by disorganization.

Their inability to generalize and abstract, combined with poor memory, leads to forgetfulness and confusion. My duty is to impart organizing abilities to my students, not only so they can pass English but also so they can participate effectively and happily in life. My term for this particular LD problem is the "limbo of uncertainty," and I do my darndest to keep the kids out of it.

My major organizing device is the calendar. Each

LD students help videotape class activities, particularly class-written and produced plays.

month the class is given a calendar listing all required English work for that month—tests, assignments, reading. The November 4 square might read, "*English Workbook*, p. 100." That of November 13 might warn, "Vocabulary test on *Beowulf* words."

A large calendar in the classroom accommodates any changes and additions. Absent students upon their return check the big calendar or call their class buddies for updating. The class knows the month's responsibilities and when they fall due. I encourage them to plan ahead and allow for special activities such as holidays or band concerts.

Two kinds of information appear on the back of the calendar. One is a reminder of subject material emphasized that month. During a month of grammar study, the back of the calendar might give the definition of the noun or a list of conjunctions for ready reference. When the month's subject is drama, a glossary of dramatic terms might appear.

Along with the reminders is a list of "Mrs. Brown's Commandments," which are never to be violated. Examples are, "You will be on time"; "You will have your English supplies daily—book, paper, pens, pencils"; "No locker passes for forgotten items." If a

student is having trouble keeping these commandments, I employ the point system to correct their behavior. For example, John might earn five points for every day that he is on time or equipped with a pencil. (I compute students' grades on the basis of the number of points they earn.)

The last commandment, "You will hand in work on time," receives particular emphasis. I emphasize that in the workday world jobs are completed on time for the boss. I am the boss in my classroom.

Motivating any group of students is a daily challenge for the teacher—in this respect LD students are like any others. Because they are generally not self-directing, however, LD students need motivation more than others do. I begin the year with concrete motivators—foods, field trips, outdoor class sessions, and free time to spend in the Reading Pit, a carpeted, pillowed corner devoted to pleasure reading when classwork is done.

A more abstract level of reinforcement is teacher and peer praise. I try to find something complimentary to say about every child every day, even though it might just be a comment on a new shirt. Conversely, I use behavior-modification or other techniques to discourage students from making derogatory remarks about themselves or their peers. Feeling good about oneself is a prime motivator.

I've discussed at length the characteristics of LD students and how I adapt my techniques to work with them. But the teacher's characteristics also are important. The most important is sensitivity, which shows itself in several ways.

A teacher must be attuned to the class assimilation rate and pace the teaching accordingly. Should the class pick up a new idea quickly, the teacher continues with the next part of the lesson. When, as more frequently occurs, the class is obviously struggling to acquire a new concept, the sensitive teacher will be prepared to teach in another way or to teach a prerequisite skill the students lack.

The teacher must also be aware of the amount of time required for the completion of an assignment. Many LD students are slow workers who will be frustrated by lengthy tasks. Although a 10-sentence grammar exercise would not burden the average student, it might overwhelm the LD adolescent, and the sensitive teacher realizes this.

The teacher of LD adolescents should also be sensitive to the moods of the class and the individuals in it. Combining the "usual" adolescent moods with the despair of a learning problem makes a volatile concoction. A noisy, rowdy class might need to start the day with a structured, calming activity instead of a planned stimulating activity. The teacher must be willing to change plans on occasion to make the most of the class's preparedness to learn. □

Helping Teach

Teachers know that successful academic experiences seldom occur by accident—especially for the learning disabled. To succeed, education for LD students needs to be a planned responsibility shared by many—students, teachers, parents, administrators, and the school board. All have special parts to play in providing funds, resources, staff, time, and support to do the job right.

The federal government has acknowledged these needs through PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. For classroom teachers who will be working with handicapped students for the first time, intensive, systematic, in-service education becomes a top priority. Teachers who pride themselves on imaginative lesson plans, a knack for organization, and a way with troubled children will find that all of that is not enough. PL 94-142 calls for teachers to be given in-service (on-the-job) training so they will be able to identify, teach, and assess the learning disabled student.

Under the provisions of PL 94-142, the school district is expected to provide appropriate in-service programs. However, a number of questions have yet to be considered about how this should be done.

- Where should in-service sessions take place?

Insofar as possible, on-site, in the local school setting, or, as they become established, in teacher centers.

- When should the sessions be held?

During the teacher's scheduled, contractual work week—not on weekends or evenings.

- Who will pay for and manage in-service programs?

The district.

- Who will present the programs?

Mainly teachers with experience and expertise in this area, supplemented by other special resource people as appropriate.

Once the logistics are arranged, two central questions remain: What form will in-service programs

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...ers Teach the LD Student

take? and What will teachers need to learn?

In-service programs for teachers can take many forms, and the form of any given program should depend on what kind of help teachers need. Generally, programs should not be designed to try to answer all questions at once; they should be ongoing, systematic, and flexible. The possible formats include those often used routinely for in-service programs in many school systems: faculty building meetings, department meetings, grade level meetings, "staffings" (meetings about one child with all of his or her teachers), and individual conferences.

What will teachers need to learn? An effective in-service program will include information on the following basic topics: identification and referral of students who may be learning disabled, the school's program for LD students, understanding the problems of LD students, and adaptive teaching techniques for use in the classroom with LD students.

Identification and referral of students. Identifying students who may be learning disabled and referring them for testing remains a central responsibility of regular classroom teachers because of their opportunity to observe students on a daily basis. Preceding articles in this feature describe some classroom symptoms—ways of behaving and learning—that LD students exhibit. The box on how to recognize an LD child in the classroom also provides a quick look at the problem.

In large school systems, the guidance staff may handle referrals initially. In smaller schools, the LD specialist may receive referrals directly. In any case, schools should have a specific referral form and a procedure that includes a follow-up system. Teachers should then expect to participate in educational planning for the referred student who is found to have a learning disability. Teachers can also expect to get advice on teaching strategies and/or on dealing with inappropriate behavior.

For in-service education in identification and referral, therefore, the LD specialist should distribute definitions of learning disabilities as well as referral forms and behavioral checklists. The specialist should also make available appropriate films, filmstrips, or other audiovisual materials that describe the LD child; develop a teacher handbook describing typical characteristics; and provide other books and references on learning disabilities.

The school program. To meet the intent of the "least restrictive environment" clause of PL 94-142, LD students are scheduled as much as possible into classes with "normal" children and only as much as necessary into special classes. Different schools have developed different ways of providing the special help that LD students need.

Some LD programs offer only clinical teaching (an approach with emphasis on analyzing errors as the basis for future lessons) for a specific number of students in separate classes. In other programs, LD consultants work with regular classroom teachers in both team teaching and crisis intervention. Still other programs include clinical teaching and consultation as well as diagnosis.

Teachers are naturally eager to know about (and under PL 94-142 will have to be informed of) the services and objectives of their school's learning disabilities program. The LD specialist should inform the staff about the program through meetings, bulletins, and/or individual conferences.

Understanding the problems of LD students. Through simulations, teachers can begin to grasp the difficulties that frustrate LD students daily. Simulations such as the following may be used at in-service programs:

To simulate visual perception/memory weakness—

Read an unclear test ditto and answer the questions within a short time.

Complete a simple math quiz in which problems are spaced closely together and signs are confusing or missing.

Memorize a list of foreign words from a language family you have never studied. Then take a spelling test on the words.

To simulate auditory perception/memory weakness—

Try to follow oral directions while listening to a radio, tape recorder, or record player.

Respond to a long series of oral directions.

Read passages in which every fifth word or important nouns and verbs are missing.

Tell a long, confusing story and listen to several

people try to repeat it.

To simulate motor and visual-motor difficulties—

Use the nondominant hand to copy material from the chalkboard.

Given a sheet of paper with rows of letters on it, draw lines from letter to letter as they are named, looking not at the paper but at its reflection in a small mirror.

To simulate social difficulties—

Listen to a tape by an LD student who is describing his or her educational and social experiences.

View a videotape in which LD students discuss the problems they have experienced in school.

Teaching techniques for use in the classroom. Other articles in this feature have suggested many ways to help LD students. Here are some more ideas that may prove useful:

Allow students to use calculators, desk charts, time lines, and maps.

Encourage them to use a typewriter for written assignments, even in the elementary school. Their typing may be slow but at least their work will be legible.

Emphasize important points by color coding, underlining, changing pitch of voice, using mnemonic devices to aid learning.

Grade according to each student's progress at his or her level of performance, not according to peers' achievements.

Require students to use a subject notebook or folders.

Use a syllabus, course outline, or contract for assignments. These may provide the organization that helps students turn their assignments in on time. Give a copy to the LD specialist so that he or she can help students with the assignments.

PL 94-142 charges classroom teachers with a basic commitment to educate all handicapped children including the learning disabled. Teachers can fulfill that commitment only if school districts provide and guarantee the full-scale in-service education needed to make the law work. □

Ways To Teach LD Students

The following suggestions are appropriate for students with *auditory* or *visual* problems:

Seat such students in the front of the room.

Have each of them work with a student buddy who can help them with directions and information they don't understand. Give written as well as oral directions for all assignments. You can give written directions on the chalkboard or on a calendar or in a course outline.

The following suggestions are appropriate for students with *auditory* problems:

Use visuals—maps, slides, charts, pictures—with lectures.

Summarize key points in each lesson in introducing and again in concluding the lesson.

Give students a written outline for each unit of study.

Help students with material they need to memorize by suggesting mnemonic devices.

Use tapes for individual instruction and make tapes of your lectures that students can listen to.

The following suggestions are appropriate for students with *visual* and *visual-motor* problems:

Use reading materials at appropriate grade levels.

Allow such students to tape lectures, discussions, and directions rather than take notes.

Give short written assignments.

Give oral tests whenever appropriate.

On written tests, provide a variety of test items: matching, multiple choice, short answer, true/false.

Provide a variety of assignments: models, demonstrations, diagrams, tapes, slides, oral presentations.

Give students copies of other students' classnotes.

Give students brief written outlines of reading assignments.

Ways To Evaluate LD Students

Students can demonstrate what they've learned from a unit of study in many ways other than taking a typical test. They might—

Make a transparency to illustrate an idea from the unit.

Prepare a glossary of special words and their definitions from the unit.

Prepare a chart or map showing information from the unit.

Draw a cartoon or cartoon strip expressing an idea from the unit.

Adapt the information in the unit for a simple play or skit.

Make a collage or a picture sequence related to the various ideas studied in the unit.

Construct a bulletin board display.

Write or tape a news commentary on a subject related to the unit.

Interview someone who is knowledgeable about the topic under study and record the interview for presentation to the group.

Keep a journal of new information learned in the unit each day.

Prepare a research paper.

Prepare a slide, filmstrip, or videotape presentation for the group.

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PL 94-142—Getting the

The increasing national concern for the needs of handicapped children, including the learning disabled child, is of relatively recent origin.

Perhaps the original impetus for establishing the right of the handicapped child to equal educational opportunity came in *Brown* v. *Board of Education*, the historic 1954 Supreme Court decision on school desegregation. Relying on the legal principles of the *Brown* decision, parents of handicapped children, in court decisions in 1971 and 1972, secured the constitutional right of their children, regardless of handicap, to a free and adequate education.

The first major breakthrough in congressional support for the education of handicapped children and children with learning disabilities came in 1965 with Title VI of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The second breakthrough came with the passage of the Education of the Handicapped Act in 1970.

This legislation provided that children with specific learning disabilities were to receive educational services. Unfortunately, it also stated that more educational and medical research would be needed before the term *specific learning disabilities* could be included in the official federal definition of the handicapped. But despite this serious deficiency, the Education of the Handicapped Act did establish the basis for more comprehensive federal attention to learning disabled children. Its Part G initiated something new—model demonstration centers to deliver special services to children with specific learning disabilities.

In 1975, we scored an even greater breakthrough with the passage of that landmark legislation, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142). In all the years I have been in the Congress, there is no bill which I have been prouder to support. PL 94-142 sets the permanent federal financial contribution, a monetary commitment that will gradually escalate until it is fixed permanently in 1982.

As a citizen of Massachusetts, I note with a great sense of pride that the Massachusetts Comprehensive Special Education Act of 1972, better known as Chapter 766, served as a model for the federal Education for All Handicapped Children Act. Both laws focus on the needs of children rather than on labeling or categorizing them. Both laws—

- Mandate a free appropriate public education for all handicapped children.
- Order the development of individualized education programs to meet the unique needs of each exceptional child.
- Seek a remedy against evaluating children in ways that may prove racially or culturally biased by ordering comprehensive team assessments.
- Guarantee full due process for parents and children in all matters of educational assessment and placement.
- Mandate that handicapped children are educated in the least restrictive environment—in the regular classroom with their nonhandicapped peers, unless their particular educational needs cannot be met in that way.

Finally, PL 94-142 clearly and forthrightly brings children with specific learning disabilities under the same umbrella with other children who require special education and related services.

Despite its advantages, however, PL 94-142 is not a cure-all for children with learning disabilities.

PL 94-142 places a ceiling on the number of children with learning disabilities who can be counted to receive federal money. This ceiling provides that of the school-age children aged five to 17 who may be counted as handicapped children served, not more than one-sixth may be children with specific learning disabilities. But the statutes do provide a basis for removing this ceiling in the near future without the necessity of further legislation.

In addition, PL 94-142 requires that regulations relating to handicapped and learning disabled children be published. [See the article following this one for information about the regulations.]

I turn now to a discussion of the crucial matter of appropriations for PL 94-142. As we know, authorizing legislation is only the first step in the legislative process. The next is to appropriate adequate funds to enable states and local school districts to provide the appropriate education for the children covered under the legislation.

By **EDWARD BROOKE**
U.S. Senator, Massachusetts.

Money To Make It Work

When we speak of funding for education of the handicapped, we are by necessity speaking of substantial amounts of money. On the average the education of a handicapped child costs one-and-a-half times more than that of an ordinary child. We must never forget, however, that education of the handicapped is an investment in human resources. When it succeeds, in addition to fulfilling the hopes of parents for their children, it pays us back manyfold in economic and social benefits to the entire community.

The costs of special education do weigh heavily upon the financial capacity of the states and local school districts, however. The financial needs will be still greater by September 1, 1978, when PL 94-142 mandates total compliance with the requirement to provide a free appropriate public education to each handicapped child.

It would be naive to hope that these funds will or can be raised by local and state governments alone. Even if we were to put special education aside, states and local school boards would still be hard pressed to meet their escalating expenses, ordinary and extraordinary.

We need only look at the effects of our last severe winter to see how vulnerable local school budgets are. The extreme cold temperatures drastically increased school fuel costs in the East.

Nor can we ignore the pressures to end other educational inequities. For example, funds are, of course, still needed for Title I of ESEA. And with just cause, there is growing pressure for states to equalize the present disgraceful discrepancy in funding among school districts. California, for example, is now under court order to equalize its school district funding. Compliance will cost that state at least $1 billion. And it is entirely possible that other states will be ordered to, or will decide to, do the same.

The paramount question is, How will we pay the cost of special education for the handicapped and the learning disabled? Few local school districts are able to assume substantial new expenditures without substantial assistance. In too many school districts, property taxes are already at the straining point. And the states are unable to do the job alone.

Again, my own state of Massachusetts is an example of the cost problem. When Chapter 766 went into effect in 1974, the state was spending $40 million on special education out of a total of $425 million state aid to education. Only two years later, in 1976, Massachusetts spent $133 million on special education out of a total of $453 million. Thus, special education funds went up dramatically from less than 10 percent of total state aid to nearly 30 percent. This year there is a deficit of $27 million in state funds for special education, which must be made up next year. This compensation in turn will result in cuts in general education aid to 241 towns and cities in the state.

I focus on Massachusetts and its funding crisis for special education only because it will probably be the first state to comply with PL 94-142, and thus may portend a financial crisis in other states.

The choices are clear, if for the most part unacceptable. If we are to comply with the requirements of the law, state taxes must be increased, local property taxes raised, general or special education programs cut, or more federal funds appropriated. As I have indicated, the first two choices have limited viability. And it would be tragic if either general or special education programs were cut, if bitter conflicts arose over the financial claims of special and general education. It would also be disastrous if cities were forced to choose to fund either bilingual education or special education, to fund either sorely needed compensatory programs for the disadvantaged or equally sorely needed special education programs for the handicapped. Such conflicts must be avoided if we are to avert a potential backlash against special education.

I believe the first three funding choices are untenable. Therefore, we must do all that we can to ensure that the federal government keeps the commitment it made when it passed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. I have, as ranking minority member of the Labor-HEW Appropriations Subcommittee, made adequate funding of education programs for the handicapped a personal priority.

Let's look at the record of the Congress on this issue for the past few years. In fiscal 1973, under the old Education of the Handicapped Act, Congress appropriated only $37.5 million; for fiscal year 1975,

$100 million. With the passage of PL 94-142 in 1975, the federal government promised to assume a more realistic share of the cost of educating our handicapped, and for 1982 Congress has authorized $3.16 billion in federal funds.

The federal commitment of funds for the handicapped has increased—mostly because of PL 94-142. As this article goes to press, a House-Senate conference committee agreed to fund almost $620 million for *all* education for handicapped programs, including PL 94-142, for fiscal year 1978.

Please know that I am fully aware of the many constraints upon our federal budget in these difficult days and that I am even more aware of the many legitimate and worthy claims upon that budget. But I would remind you of the lines of Spenser:

No cause is just unless it guards the innocent
As Sacred trust: no truth but that
Which reckons the child's tears an argument.

I believe that our nation wants our handicapped children to receive the best education possible, an education that will make them as free as possible and an education that will allow them to go as far as they possibly can. They can get that education if we work together in the days and years ahead. □

Senator Brooke spoke on this subject at the 1977 international conference of the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities in Washington, DC. This article is an edited condensation of that speech.

Did you know that . . .

Four times as many boys as girls have been estimated to have learning disabilities?

There appears to be a familial tendency toward learning disabilities (i.e., a father, uncle, brother, male cousin, or grandfather of many LD children had either a learning disability or difficulty in learning language skills)?

Many children with learning disabilities have slower than normal language and speech development?

A person can have a learning disability that isn't an apparent problem—that doesn't interfere with everyday life and performance at home, at work, or in school, for example, difficulty in learning to speak a foreign language or to sing a song?

People with learning disabilities may be sensitive to criticism, easily discouraged, and overly dependent?

Two of the largest problems for people with learning disabilities are socialization and organization?

Anybody with a learning disability can be taught to compensate for it?

Gifted and talented students may have learning disabilities?

Persons with learning disabilities have normal or better than normal intelligence?

You may have a "hidden handicap," too?

NEA Resolution 77-33: Education for All Handicapped Children

The National Education Association supports a free appropriate public education for all handicapped students in a least restrictive environment which is determined by maximum teacher involvement. However, the Association recognizes that to implement Public Law 94-142 effectively—

a. A favorable learning experience must be created both for handicapped and nonhandicapped students.

b. Regular and special education teachers and administrators must share equally in planning and implementation for the disabled.

c. All staff should be adequately prepared for their roles through in-service training and retraining.

d. All students should be adequately prepared for the program.

e. The appropriateness of educational methods, materials, and supportive services must be determined in cooperation with classroom teachers.

f. The classroom teacher(s) should have an appeal procedure regarding the implementation of the program, especially in terms of student placement.

g. Modifications should be made in class size, using a weighted formula, scheduling, and curriculum design to accommodate the demands of the program.

h. There must be a systematic evaluation and reporting of program developments using a plan which recognizes individual differences.

i. Adequate funding must be provided and then used exclusively for this program.

j. The classroom teacher(s) must have a major role in determining individual educational programs and should become members of school assessment teams.

k. Adequate released time must be made available for teachers so that they can carry out the increased demands upon them.

l. Staff reduction will not result from implementation of the program.

m. Additional benefits negotiated for handicapped students through local collective bargaining agreements must be honored.

n. Communication among all involved parties is essential to the success of the program.

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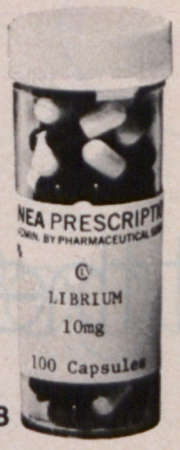

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TETRACYCLINE HCL 250mg	**C**	**2.97**
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MECLIZINE HCL 12.5mg	**T**	**2.68**
Apresoline 25mg	T	5.94
HYDRALAZINE HCL 25mg	**T**	**2.34**
Apresoline 50mg	T	8.28
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Aristocort 4mg	T	19.17
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NITROFURANTOIN 50mg	**T**	**2.34**
Hydrodiuril 50mg	T	6.39
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Isordil 10mg oral	T	5.76
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Librium 5mg	C	6.30
CHLORDIAZEPOXIDE HCL 5mg	**C**	**3.06**
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NITROGLYCERIN 2.5mg LA	**C**	**2.70**
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NITROGLYCERIN 6.5mg LA	**C**	**3.15**
Pavabid 150mg	C	9.27
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Peritrate 20mg	T	5.85
PENTAERYTHRITOL TETRANITRATE 20mg	**T**	**1.80**
Peritrate 80mg SA	T	11.79
PENTAERYTHRITOL TETRANITRATE 80mg	**C**	**3.69**
Phenergan 12.5mg	T	5.94
PROMETHAZINE HCL 12.5mg	**T**	**2.16**
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For More Information

The NEA Instruction and Professional Development Briefing Program on PL 94-142 is called "Teachers and the Education of All Handicapped Students." It includes a filmstrip and print materials which describe the Association's position on such key issues as class size, planning time, in-service education, and placement of handicapped students. Contact your UniServ director or state IPD staff for information about its availability.

A limited supply of Fact Sheets and Teacher Information Sheets on PL 94-142 are available from Lucille Kincaid, NEA/IPD, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

NEA Publications also has cassette and print materials for sale on this topic.

Three specialized groups are especially well-qualified to give information about teaching the learning disabled. These organizations are—

- Association for Children with Learning Disabilities (ACLD)
  4156 Library Road
  Pittsburgh, PA 15234
- U.S. Office of Education
  Bureau of Education for the Handicapped
  Suite 4030, Donohoe Building
  Sixth and D Streets, S.W.
  Washington, DC 20202
- Council for Exceptional Children
  1920 Association Drive
  Reston, VA 22091

ACLD has books and pamphlets available for sale at the prices listed below (which include postage and handling). Make checks payable to ACLD.

Arena, John I. *Teaching Educationally Handicapped Children.* Academic Therapy Publications. 1967. $3.75.

Kirk, Samuel A., and McCarthy, Jeanne M. *Learning Disabilities: Selected ACLD Papers.* Houghton Mifflin. 1975. $9.95.

Kirk, Samuel A., and Kirk, Winifred D. *Psycholinguistic Learning Disabilities: Diagnosis and Remediation.* University of Illinois Press. 1971. $3.75.

Rosner, Jerome. *Helping Children Overcome Learning Difficulties.* Walker. 1975. $12.75.

Siegel, Ernest. *Special Education in the Regular Classroom.* John Day. 1969. $7.25.

Wender, Paul H. *The Hyperactive Child.* Crown. 1973. $5.25.

The staff of USOE's Bureau of Education for the Handicapped suggests these books:

Gearhart, Bill R. *Learning Disabilities: Educational Strategies.* Mosby. 1973.

Lerner, Janet. *Children with Learning Disabilities.* Houghton Mifflin. 2nd ed., 1976.

McCarthy, James J., and McCarthy, Joan F. *Learning Disabilities.* Allyn & Bacon. 1969.

Rowan, Ruth Dinkins. *Helping Children with Learning Disabilities in Home, School, Church, and Community.* Abingdon. 1977.

Wallace, Gerald, and Kauffman, James. *Teaching Children with Learning Problems.* Merrill. 1973.

For further information about the program for the learning disabled in the Fairfax County schools, write to Barbara Wozney (Elementary) or Myrna Smith (Secondary), Special Education Division, Belle Willard Administration Center, Fairfax County Schools, 10310 Layton Hall Drive, Fairfax, VA 22030.

What the Laws

On August 23, 1977, the U.S. Office of Education printed in the *Federal Register* its final regulations for the sweeping Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142, Part B). These regulations dovetail very closely with the nondiscrimination requirements set forth in Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

Basically, both laws require that—

- Handicapped persons be provided a free appropriate public education.
- Handicapped students be educated with nonhandicapped students to the extent appropriate.
- Education agencies identify and locate all unserved handicapped children.
- Evaluation procedures be adopted to ensure appropriate classification and educational services.
- Procedural safeguards be established.

The penalties for noncompliance with these statutes are severe; they include the cutoff of all federal assistance to state and local agencies.

NEA has asked its affiliates to notify the Office of Government Relations of any trouble they encounter as PL 94-142 is implemented, pointing out that the new regulations are not set in cement. USOE recognizes that once some experience is gained in administering the law under these regulations, questions may arise, and the rules—possibly even the law itself—may need amending.

At this point, the most serious problem appears to be the extent to which the federal government is willing to fund the program. For a discussion of this problem, see the preceding article by Senator Edward Brooke.

Following are some highlights of the definitions used in the PL 94-142 regulations and some of the general criteria for state and local administration of the program.

Definitions

Handicapped children are those who are identified

and Regulations Require

as mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired, deaf-blind, or multihandicapped or who have specific learning disabilities and who because of those impairments need special education and related services.

Free appropriate public education (FAPE) means special education and related services provided at public expense under public supervision and direction and without charge. It must meet the standards of the state education agency (and the federal regulation); include preschool, elementary school, or secondary school education in the state where the child lives; and be provided in conformity with an individualized education program (see below).

Special education means specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parent, to meet the individual needs of a handicapped child. This includes classroom instruction, physical education, home instruction, and instruction in hospitals and institutions. The term also includes speech pathology or any other related service if the service consists of specially designed instruction. It further includes vocational instruction which is specially designed to meet the needs of the handicapped individual and prepares him or her for paid or unpaid employment or for a career requiring other than a baccalaureate or advanced degree.

Related services means transportation and such developmental, corrective, and other supportive services as are required to help a handicapped child benefit from special education. It includes speech pathology and audiology, psychological services, physical and occupational therapy, recreation services, early identification and assessment of disabilities in children, counseling services, and medical services for diagnostic or evaluation purposes. The term also includes school nurse and other health services, social work services in schools, and parent counseling and training.

Qualified persons in the PL 94-142 program are those who have met state education agency approved or recognized certification, licensing, registration, or other comparable requirements that apply to the area in which they provide special education or related services.

Public agencies include the state education agency, local education agencies, intermediate educational units, and any other political subdivisions of the state which are responsible for providing education to handicapped children.

Priority children under the new regulations fall into two categories. "First priority children" are handicapped children who are in an age group for which the state must make available free appropriate public education and who are not yet receiving *any* education. "Second priority children" are those within each disability group who have the most severe handicaps and are receiving an inadequate education.

Criteria and Procedures

In order to receive funds under Part B of PL 94-142 for any fiscal year, a state must submit an annual program plan to the U.S. Commissioner of Education through its state education agency. The plan must include in detail the policies and procedures the state will undertake or has undertaken to ensure that a free appropriate public education is available for all handicapped children aged three through 18 within the state no later than September 1, 1978, and in addition for all handicapped children aged 19 through 21 within the state no later than September 1, 1980. This requirement does not apply to a state with respect to handicapped children younger than six or older than 17 to the extent that the requirement would be inconsistent with state law or practice or the order of any court respecting public education for one or more of those age groups in the state.

Each annual program plan must also contain a

detailed timetable for accomplishing the goal of providing full educational opportunity for all handicapped children from birth through age 21. The timetable must indicate what percentage of the total estimated number of handicapped children the state expects to be providing with full educational opportunity in each succeeding school year.

The plan must outline the methods by which state and local education agencies will secure public input (including teacher organization input) into state and local program plans.

• Local programs for the handicapped may be strengthened after September 1, 1978, by the employment of additional teachers and related service personnel and by increasing in-service training for program personnel. Even prior to that date, however, Part B funds may be used for in-service training as soon as first priority children are actually served—even if the service is on an interim basis.

• Individualized education programs (IEP's) for all children currently being served under PL 94-142 must be completed by October 1, 1977. For each new eligible student, an IEP must be completed within 30 days after the determination that the child needs special education. The child's teacher must participate in the meeting to develop the IEP. The regulations reflect Congressional intent that the meetings be small but that all staff who will have contact with the child be fully informed about the IEP and its development.

The content of the IEP is dictated by a quotation from the law. It must be a statement of educational goals, objectives, and services rather than a lengthy, prescriptive statement of specific activities. Thus, the development of the IEP remains with the education professionals, as NEA believes it should.

An important statement in the IEP section notes that teachers and public agencies cannot be held accountable if a child does not achieve the growth anticipated in the IEP.

• The regulations on personnel development describe the scope and content of the system to be used. In-service training must be designed and provided for all general and special education instructional, related service, and support personnel. The system must also include procedures to ensure that there are sufficient personnel to carry out the purposes of PL 94-142. Procedures must be established to disseminate to teachers significant findings from educational research and innovative projects. Although teacher organizations are not specifically named, they are clearly among the groups that must have an opportunity to participate fully in the development, review, and annual update of the personnel development system.

• A state entitlement formula determines the amount that a state may receive under Part B of PL 94-142. Basically, it multiplies the number of handicapped children aged three through 21 in the state who are receiving special education and related services by a percentage of the national average per-pupil expenditure in public elementary and secondary schools. The percentage factor for fiscal 1978 is 5; for 1979, 10; for 1980, 20; for 1981, 30; and for 1982 and each succeeding year, 40.

A local education agency may use Part B funds for paying only the "excess cost" of providing special education and related services to handicapped children. Each local education agency must keep adequate records to show that it has met the excess cost requirement.

• Under the regulations, each participating agency is required to protect the confidentiality of personally identifiable information (e.g., records that link particular children with particular disabilities) at collection, storage, disclosure, and destruction stages. In addition, each participating agency must maintain for public inspection a current listing of the names and positions of employees within the agency who may have access to personally identifiable information. In general, the confidentiality section of the regulations follows closely the precepts of the 1974 Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act.

• The regulations require establishment of a state advisory panel on the education of handicapped children. The panel will advise the state education agency of unmet needs of handicapped children, comment publicly on the state's annual plan, and assist in developing such reports and evaluations as may be required.

Panel members must be persons involved in or concerned with the program. The membership must include at least one representative from each of the following groups:

- Handicapped individuals
- Teachers of handicapped children
- Parents of handicapped children
- State and local education officials
- Special education program administrators.

There must be broad representations within professional groups. For example, the state advisory panel should include regular education personnel; special educators (including teachers, teacher trainers, and administrators); and appropriate related services personnel. If a state elects to maintain a small advisory panel, the panel itself could take steps to ensure that it consults with and receives input from various consumer and special interest professional groups and that it establishes committees for particular short-term purposes which are composed of representatives from those groups.

—NEA Government Relations.

PL 94-142 and Teachers

When states implement Public Law 94-142, how will it affect classroom teachers?

First of all, probably only a small number of students who are handicapped will work directly with each classroom teacher. Many handicapped students will be served completely outside the regular classroom. (The law places a limit on the number of handicapped children to be served in each state at a maximum of 12 percent of the population aged five to 17.)

Teachers will be asked to help identify handicapped students and aid in their placement. School districts are required to provide teachers with the training necessary to do this.

When a teacher and the specialized school personnel identify a handicapped child who can receive services under PL 94-142, the teacher may become a member of a team, along with the child's parents and a representative of the school district, to prepare an individualized education program (IEP). The IEP will set long-range and short-range goals for the child and prescribe an immediate program of service for his or her educational needs in the least restrictive educational environment that is appropriate.

If a teacher feels that the placement of a particular youngster in his or her regular classroom is unjust or inequitable to any or all concerned, the teacher should call a parent/school administration conference and recommend a change in the IEP. If the issue cannot be resolved at that level, the teacher should file a complaint with the state department of education and the state advisory panel. If the issue still is not resolved, the teacher should file a grievance under the collective bargaining contract. If the district does not have a collective bargaining contract, the local association should work to secure a guaranteed due process procedure for teachers.

What good effects will the law have?

PL 94-142 provides—

For handicapped students, the opportunity for free, appropriate public education and placement in an educational environment appropriate to their needs.

For employed teachers, the possibility of smaller class size to serve individual student needs as well as additional job satisfaction in serving the unique needs of exceptional children.

For many trained, but unemployed, teachers, new career opportunities.

For schools, opportunity to secure increased parental support and to demonstrate their contribution to the betterment of American society.

What does PL 94-142 fail to do?

PL 94-142 does not provide—

Adequate funding to do the job that needs to be done.

Requirements that communities assume the fiscal and program responsibilities necessary to serve children successfully.

Due process guarantees for teachers who are placed in untenable positions due to absence of in-service training and resources.

Adequate guarantees for funding of in-service education necessary to implement the law.

How can teachers work with local associations to get the best results possible from PL 94-142?

Teachers can work through their association to—

Advise parents of handicapped children of their rights under the law and of the obligation of the local school system to finance the programs to guarantee those rights. And at the same time, secure fair treatment and due process procedures for all teachers who are assigned handicapped students in regular class.

Develop an information program to inform the community that the school system, not the individual teacher, has the major responsibility for program services.

Monitor the local program and advise the state affiliates and NEA of program abuses which deny the educational rights of students or violate the professional rights of teachers.

Insist that in-service programs for teachers be organized, but be sure that the program financing comes from federal-state-local school funds.

Design improved ways to instruct the handicapped and advise the state affiliate of any successful programs that might be useful to colleagues.

Secure released time for teachers to plan and hold conferences with staff and parents.

Insist that appropriate specialized supportive services be provided to guarantee appropriate education for the handicapped child.

—NEA Instruction and Professional Development.

Single copies of this special feature are available free as long as the supply lasts. Send your request to NEA Instruction and Professional Development, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Please enclose a stamped (24¢), self-addressed, legal-size envelope.

What To Do About Violence

Public school personnel today face more and more incidences of violence of all sorts. While the obvious excuse that "children are more difficult today" seems to suffice as a rationale for the pathological apathy which pervades the schools, it does little to solve the problem of school-centered violence. Students of child development are the first to acknowledge that children are, in fact, "different" today, particularly in terms of the nature of their acted-out behaviors.

The surge of the recent "children's rights" movement has left in its wake a large group of youngsters who are well-versed in the covert protection afforded by recently enacted "children's rights" legislation. As a result, almost every community can become a child-adult adversary arena in which some children seem to delight in exploring and exploiting the legal strictures to which they can with impunity subject adults, both teachers and parents.

The dichotomous attitude of society toward drug use has also contributed to the confusion of basic attitudes among the young. Adult opposition to drug use by children is vitiated considerably in the minds of the young by the equally strong reaction among many parents to the excessive penalties imposed for the use and possession of marijuana and other so-called soft drugs. Adult modeling in the whole area of drug use has, in effect, said to young people, "It's all right to use certain drugs after you've reached a certain age."

Adult modeling in the area of sexual behavior, too, has contributed to confusion in basic attitudes. For example, society's proscriptions about homosexual behavior are no longer finely drawn for the young and old alike.

The demise of the work ethic, too, has played its part in the confusion-leading-to-frustration-leading-to-violence pattern among the young. The negation of the idea that work gives pleasure and satisfaction has robbed the parent and the teacher of a means of orientating children to useful goals.

The fact that children have become caught up in what I call the "Nader syndrome" poses a further difficulty. They see themselves as "consumers" of various social agencies such as the schools and the juvenile courts. As such, they feel not only free but almost compelled to demand some kind of "warranty" that the professional prescriptions these agencies make will absolutely "work." While those who use these agencies should raise reasonable questions, they should not turn their relationship with the agency into a kind of battleground. Such internecine conflict can weaken or entirely neutralize the effectiveness of agency assistance.

Considering these circumstances, it is only natural that public school teachers have been forced to resort to a variety of techniques for survival. Many have indicated to me that the new survival technique consists of quickly removing themselves from the area where violent acts are occurring and of emulating the three monkeys, who neither see, nor speak, nor hear any evil.

What *can* be done?

Some means must be found to deal with the causes of violent acts. Continued use of methods that are addressed primarily to the symptoms—the violent acts themselves—seems to be useless if one looks at the increasing incidence and ever more violent nature of the acts.

Any effective means of dealing with violence in the schools must involve

By JAMES E. COLE
Associate Professor of Mental Health Education, Graduate School of Education, University of Utah, Salt Lake City

the entire school community. Unilateral action by one agency (the police, for example), while temporarily effective, does not provide any lasting solution.

My informal survey of junior high schools with a high incidence of violence reveals that they have some common characteristics.

1. The schools are located in districts with higher-than-average amounts of community violence.

2. The divorce rate in most of these communities exceeds that of the nation as a whole by as much as 8 percent. Almost 30 percent of the children under 18 in these schools come from families in which there has been at least one divorce; over 5 percent come from families in which there have been several.

3. Roughly two-thirds of the school populations in these schools are Caucasian.

4. Teachers in these schools feel that violent acts have increased in both incidence and severity during the past two years. School patrons often agree overwhelmingly with the faculty on this.

5. The population of these schools, like that of many in the nation, has become diverse because of busing and of demographic changes in the district.

6. For the most part, curriculums are traditional and academically based. Infusion of federal monies to these schools has only recently spawned a myriad of alternative-type programs, many of which have been hastily conceived and precipitantly manned. Moreover, many of the programs have become repositories for those unable or unwilling to conform to the schools' academic expectations.

Schools can address themselves to the problem of violence quickly and efficiently.

The first step is to establish task forces of administrators, faculty, parents, and already established community groups. One task force could examine community violence in the area. Another could gather data about on-site violence at the school, with special emphasis on getting information on the teacher's role in attempting to cope with such violence.

Still other task forces could focus on administrative reaction to acts of violence and on ways of discriminating between truly violent acts and those which are more "pseudo-violent" in nature. (Shoving, ripping of clothing, and slamming of a locker door should not be equated with a severe beating or attacks with a weapon. Vandalism of significant proportions to school and school property is a special kind of violence and should be dealt with in a special way.)

A modest amount of money can be made available for the employment of mental health professionals on a consultant basis to assist the various groups. The involvement of lay people and community agencies does pose some problems for scheduling of work sessions, but this is not an insurmountable problem.

The unifying theme of all the task forces should be the development of ways of identifying the potentially violent and ways of defusing the kinds of things that precipitate violence.

In my work with the task groups, certain common factors emerged.

1. Incidents of a violent nature decrease when teachers are placed with children whom they like and who like them. (Careful pairing of the right child with the right teacher can improve the emotional climate of a school.)

2. Some teachers, contrary to the popular Our-Miss-Brooks stereotype, are lonely, isolated, and introverted people who are highly dependent upon the goodwill of children. If children do not approve of and support them, they sometimes rely upon fear techniques and threats of violence to maintain their status as authority figures.

3. From the top of the administrative ladder down and back up again, there is an almost pathological amount of distrust and fear in schools. Children soon sense this and are able to make rapid power gains by using this information.

4. Where the child's home environment is compatible with that of the school, incidents of violence are minimal. Where this is not the case, the reverse is usually true.

5. School authorities are reluctant to punish students who engage in violent behavior with some typical methods of the past such as suspension and expulsion. Recent court rulings dealing with students who have been expelled have raised so many legal and procedural problems that school authorities have all but abandoned expulsion.

Further, even rudimentary knowledge about the effectiveness of punishment dictates that punishment must quickly follow the offense, or those concerned with the incident will probably forget what it was all about initially. Furthermore, while waiting for the punishment, all the offender's incipient paranoia needs to feed upon is that a similar offense perpetrated by another was not punished identically, and the school authorities have manufactured another potential violent incident.

6. There appears to be a direct relationship between recurring acts of violence and the amount of publicity such acts receive. Therefore, one rigidly observed rule for all groups working on this problem must be no publicity.

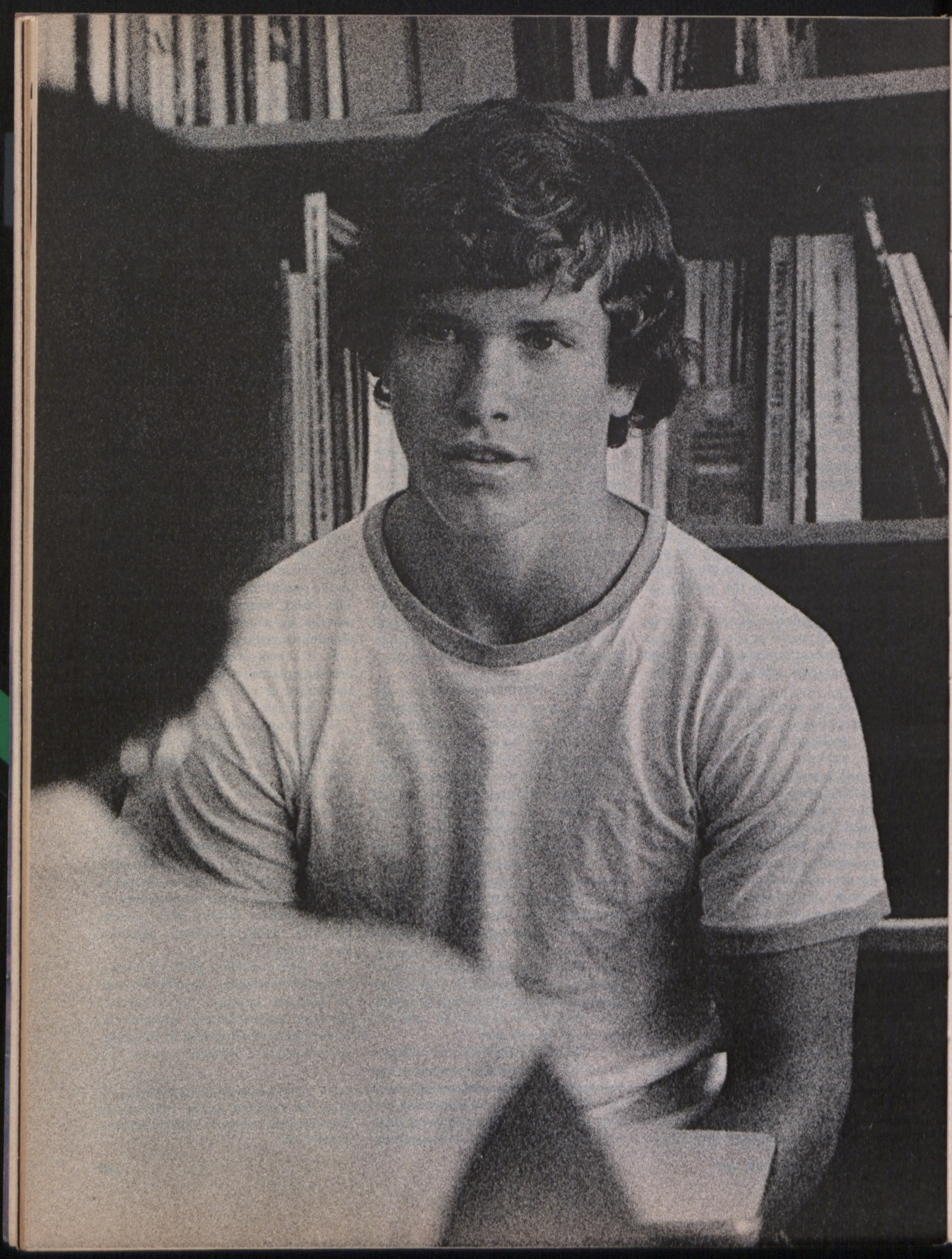
7. When teachers and parents who approve of the same methods of dealing with violent behavior are paired, there are fewer incidents of recidivism on the part of former chronic violators. The child, faced with teacher and parents in wholesome accord, often terminates negative behavior.

8. If school areas that seem to be breeding places for acts of violence are remodeled or eliminated, violent acts may diminish.

9. Through involvement in projects to combat school violence, many parents learn that their behavior at home may shape their children's behavior outside the home. For example, children who come from homes where arguments are usually settled by some form of physical violence, accompanied by appropriate killer statements, are apt to solve their peer problems in this same way. If parents involved in such a project modify their violent behavior, their children's behavior may improve.

10. One important phase of such a project is reworking the school's code of student conduct by students, teachers, administrators, and parents. Involvement of all groups in this project can produce dramatic results. □

Dr. Cole developed this article from a paper he delivered at the 1976 annual meeting of the American Orthopsychiatric Association.



10 Steps to Good Discipline

School discipline is a big problem. We don't need high-powered research to tell us this. Simple observation in most schools is really all that is required to verify this statement.

Since World War II, we have not only come to believe that 12 years of education should be guaranteed to everyone, but we have also worked to insure that every person in the United States will receive at least 12 years of education. As a result, all options, except for school, are closed to a vast majority of citizens between the ages of five and 18.

The schools, therefore, are the primary molding places of our society. As such, at the extremes, they mold either successful, strong, and responsible citizens or failing, weak, and irresponsible citizens. Every society can deal with perhaps a small percentage of people in the latter category, but if you look at our welfare rolls, our prisons, our mental hospitals, and our other institutions that deal with failing people, you know we have taxed our society to its limits. And, most terrible of all, students who fail in school, either in terms of academics or behavior, are the ones who become the delinquent, violent, crime-committing people who are robbing us of our basic right to security from physical harm.

In "A New Look at Discipline" in the December 1974 issue of *Learning*, I proposed a constructive, no-nonsense, nonpunitive method of dealing with discipline problems—a 10-step approach based on what I call Reality Therapy. This approach will only work in a school where people would normally choose to be. In other words, this system cannot succeed in a "Devil's Island" atmosphere. The school must continually strive to be a "good" place.

A good place is one where people are courteous, especially the adults. Yelling, sarcasm, and denigration are the exception instead of the rule.

A good place is a place where one frequently hears laughter that springs not from frivolity but from genuine joy brought about by involvement with caring people engaged in relevant work.

A good place is one where communication is practiced and not preached. People talk with, not at, each other.

A good place is one that has reasonable rules, rules which everyone agrees on because they are beneficial to the individual and the group, rules which everyone has a democratic stake in because everyone has a say in making and changing the rules as needs arise.

Finally, a good place is one where the administrators actively support and participate in an approach to discipline that teaches self-responsibility. They organize and participate in an ongoing in-service program designed to support the discipline program. They model the techniques with students and are involved with and positively support the staff as the staff practices the techniques of the program.

The approach I advocate is based on the following concepts of Reality Therapy:

- Be personal. Use personal pronouns. "I care enough about you to be involved, to be your friend."
- Refer to present behavior. "What are you doing right now?" Awareness of behavior is the first step. Avoid references to the past. Emphasize behavior, not feelings.
- Stress value judgments. Ask students to evaluate their own behavior. "Is what you're doing helping you?" The decision to do something better than what they are doing now must be theirs.
- Plan. Work with students to formulate alternatives. Keep the plan simple with short spans of time. Build success into the plan.
- Be committed. Build in a way to check back, follow up. Give positive reinforcement. Students need to accept some responsibility for this. A written form may be helpful.
- Don't accept excuses. Eliminate discussion of excuses to show you really know students can succeed. Replan with them. "When do you think you can do this?" Don't give up.
- Do not punish. Punishment lifts responsibility from students. Set rules and sanctions with them. They have to understand that they are responsible for themselves. This takes time and consistency.
- Never give up. Each of us must define "never" for ourselves, but a good basic rule of thumb is to hang in there longer than the student thinks you will. With the 10-step approach, this means a minimum of one month. Firm results often take two months or more.

The 10-step approach will work well if a school staff commits itself to the use of Reality Therapy as a means to

By WILLIAM GLASSER
President, William Glasser, Inc., Los Angeles.

help students become self-disciplined. It is imperative that a majority of the staff study, practice, and continually reinforce Reality Therapy.

Following are the 10 steps.

Step One. Set aside some quiet thinking time for yourself, and during this time, choose a student who is an ongoing discipline problem to work with. Build in a chance for success by choosing someone you think you could succeed in helping.

Make a list of the things you currently do when this child is disruptive. In other words, ask yourself, "What am I doing?" Your list may surprise you because we are often not so aware of our behavior as we think we are. Be honest and list the things you usually do even if they include yelling, threatening, ignoring, being sarcastic, or hitting.

Step Two. Analyze your list carefully and ask yourself, "Are these techniques working?" Probably your answer will be, "No, they are not." If that is so, you should consider stopping these behaviors. You are spinning your wheels. So, make a commitment not to use any of the responses on your list the next time a problem develops unless they correspond to the procedures suggested in Steps Three through Seven.

Step Three. Plan a better tomorrow for your student. This step is founded on the old ounce-of-prevention adage.

Give your student a pat on the back, send him or her on a special errand, or do any other thing that positively says, "You are special. I care about you." Continue these activities, but don't expect to see immediate improvements. Your student didn't become "nasty" overnight, and he or she won't become a model of responsibility in one or two days. In fact, in some extreme cases, the student may reject you even more strongly than before. But stay calm and be persistent. Treating your most difficult students well will eventually lead them to improve their behavior.

Step Four. When a problem occurs, and it will, quickly remember what didn't work (Step One), forget all of the past (Step Two), recall that you have started to build a better relationship with the student (Step Three), and ask the student, "What are you doing?" Such a question often causes the student to stop what he or she is doing and to think about it. Thinking about an act can sometimes help a student to own the behavior. If the student owns the behavior, being responsible for it is not far behind. If you persist, the student will tell you what he or she is doing. The answer will probably contain some embellishment or distraction: "I pushed him, but he pushed me first" or "She had it coming." When you get an answer that contains the behavior, simply say, "Please stop it."

Step Five. In spite of persistent use of Steps Three and Four, the problem is continuing. This calls for a short conference. Start it by repeating the first question in Step Four, "What are you doing?" Now ask, "Is it against the rules?" And then, "What should you be doing?" Explicit in the third question is the idea that you expect the unacceptable behavior to be replaced by the answer to this last question. When asking these questions, try to convey warmth, support, and firmness.

Step Six. The short conferences of Step Five are not working. Repeat all of Step Five except the last question. Substitute, "We have to work this out. What kind of plan can you make to follow our rules?" The plan has to be more than just, "I'll stop." It has to be a plan of positive action that helps the student move toward responsible behavior. In order to work, the plan should be short-term, specific, and simple. In the beginning, you may have to put many of your ideas into the plan because the process will be unusual to the student. Gradually, however, he or she will make more contributions to the plan. The more the student considers the plan his or her own, the better it will work.

Step Seven. The student disrupts again, and because of repeated use of all of the previous steps, you are sure that their further use won't work. Now is the time to isolate or "time out" the student. This may be your decision or else it may be a natural consequence agreed upon at the conclusion of your planning conference from Step Six.

Timing out can be done right in the classroom. In the elementary classroom, a place can be set up where students can sit comfortably, perhaps an overstuffed chair or a cushioned area on the floor. This place should be one which students who are not having a hard time would find attractive to visit during their spare time. In secondary schools, a table and chair can be arranged in an unused portion of an open space area or a desk can be set up in the hallway within viewing distance of the door. In either situation, students know that they cannot participate in classroom activities until they have devised a plan for following the rules, gotten your approval of the plan, and made a commitment to follow the plan.

A student who disrupts while in isolation must be excluded from the classroom or quiet area.

Step Eight. In-school suspension is the next step. You have been patient, but you can't continue to teach with a constantly disruptive student in the class. It's not fair to you or the other students, and for that matter, it's not really fair to the disruptive student either, because he or she is not learning.

At this step, there are no questions to be asked. Make this statement: "Things are not working out here for you. You and I have worked hard on the problem, but now you're going to have to spend some time outside of the class and perhaps talk with some other people. Please report to the principal's office (or counselor's office or in-school suspension room or whatever)."

The in-school suspension place should be set up along the same lines as the in-class "time out" place. It should be a comfortable, nonpunitive place that is staffed by someone who communicates these basic ideas to students: "We want you to be in school. We want you to be in class, but we expect you to follow our reasonable rules. As soon as you have a plan for returning to class and following the rules, let me know and I'll help you."

Helping out on the plan usually means asking more questions. First, the person in charge of in-school suspension has to ask, "What did you do?" And next, "What kind of plan can you make to do better?" At this stage, the staff person should be prepared for a lot of excuses and blaming and talking at making a plan, but he or she should be patient, even if it takes a day or two or three. If the student

says, "But, I'm getting behind in my work," the response should be, "Yes, I see that, and that does present a problem for you. Please feel free to do your schoolwork right here. But, you cannot go back to the class until you have a plan." The staff person has to help the student understand that there are really only two alternatives: return to class and follow reasonable rules or continue to sit here and be outside of class.

If more than one day is required, parents should be notified that their child is not in class. Sometimes a week or more is required. In one high school in Texas, a student sat for two months before he decided to return to class. And, although his schoolwork suffered, he perhaps learned one of the most important things we all have to learn: We need to be responsible for our own behavior, and we all have the power to behave in a way that is beneficial for us and for those we live and work and learn with.

Step Nine. If any student is totally out of control and cannot be contained in an in-school suspension room or office, parents must be notified and asked to take the child home. Further, they should be told that tomorrow is a new day. This can be done by saying, "We would like your son to return and to stay with us as long as his behavior is reasonable. When it goes beyond reasonableness, he will again be asked to go home." If behavior is reasonable, it's back to Step Eight.

If every teacher and administrator in the school follows these steps consistently, and if the school is a good one, a place where students enjoy being, then less than 1 percent of the students should ever get to Step Nine. And it would be even more rare for a student to get to Step Ten.

Step Ten. Any student who continually is unsuccessful in Step Nine must stay home permanently or be referred to some other community agency. As a last resort, even juvenile hall is a possibility. Though this sounds harsh, remember that sometimes it will finally jolt the student awake, and he or she will then be ready to plan a way to return to school. If the student is in juvenile hall, perhaps the judge can be persuaded to try letting him or her come back to school on a tolerance day. The student who seems ready can return from home, from the hall, or from any other agency. The student should always be welcome to return to school but only after having made a specific plan and commitment to follow reasonable rules.

Recently, my staff and I sent surveys to 24 schools that are using this approach. We chose these schools because they represent all areas of the country as well as other demographic dimensions needed to get a representative picture of education in the United States. We asked our contact people in 14 elementary schools, five junior high schools, and five senior high schools to answer 11 questions.

The 10 elementary schools that responded had 6,286 students and 310 certified staff members. The five junior high schools reported 3,559 students and 231 certified staff, and the two senior high schools served 4,916 students with 234 certified staff members.

Students have to understand that they are responsible for themselves. This takes time and consistency.

Every school reported some variation in the 10-step approach. Some of the most common variations had to do with arrangements for the in-school suspension room, notifying parents when student difficulties persisted, and other such things that resulted when students were excluded from the classroom.

We anticipated variations since it is impossible to have a generic "blueprint" applicable to every school. The program succeeds in part because the staff cooperates to design the one that will work best in their school. They own the program and therefore feel responsible for maintaining it.

Regarding attendance, six elementary schools reported no change, and four reported a slight increase. Four of the five junior high schools reported that attendance increased; the other one noted no change. Both senior high schools reported a 2 to 3 percent increase in attendance.

All 10 elementary schools reported a decrease (20 to 80 percent) in referrals to the office. All five junior high schools reported decreases, also. Here, however, the range was from 5 to 75 percent. The lower percentages directly corresponded to the proportion of staff actively involved with the program. Staff members who actively participate in the 10-step approach send fewer students to the office. One senior high school reported a 60 percent decrease, and the other reported a "slight increase, but (the) degree of infractions decreased."

All schools reported a decrease in fighting. The decrease in elementary schools ranged from 10 to 80 percent; in the junior high schools, from 25 to 95 percent. One senior high school reported a 15 percent decrease while the other reported only one fight so far this year.

(I should note here my strong recommendation that any students involved in a "serious" fight be sent home for the remainder of the day. This gives great emphasis to the fact that physical violence will not be tolerated at school. Before returning to the classroom the next day, the student must make a plan for not fighting.)

Six of the elementary schools reported that they have not suspended anyone since they began using the approach; the other four have had fewer suspensions. All the junior high schools reported a decrease in suspensions, each in the 70-to-80 percent range. Both senior high schools reported a decrease, one of 50 percent and the other of 75.

An increase in average daily attendance—and consequently in state aid—accompanies the decrease in suspensions. One or two schools have used the extra funds to staff the in-school suspension room or to pay for other support aspects of the program, such as in-service, books, and/or films. □

Dr. Glasser spoke at greater length on this subject at the 1977 annual meeting of the American Association of School Administrators.

THE TEACHER OF THE YEAR DISCUSSES

Society and

The position of Teacher of the Year carries, along with the honor, the duty of numerous speaking engagements. As I embarked upon the round of speeches that I gave and am to give this year, I was forced to look at the tremendous amount of dissatisfaction all segments of society are expressing about our educational process. Perhaps I would be more accurate if I said that there is much dissatisfaction with the products of our schools.

It seems to me that in order to deal with what people term the "failure of our schools" we must recognize that we are dealing with a very complex thing. I shall attempt to share some of my thoughts on this subject.

The educational process does not exist in a vacuum. Any division between school and the so-called real world is artificial. Schools, teachers, students are all part of society. If we are not pleased with the students who graduate from our schools, we must look for the causes of our failures. Let us look into the many aspects of society that influence the end products. School of course is one of them.

At one time in the history of our country, there was no question about what schools should do: teach reading, writing, and arithmetic so that the great mass of people knew the basics. Only a very small percentage of students were exposed to more than the three R's. Family position, money, race and sex were usually the determining factors for educational opportunity.

As our society became more complex, we realized that we must prepare students to function in it. Course offerings were expanded, and graduation requirements expanded along with them.

Great changes took place in our society. The value structures became diverse. The family lost its place as the principal influence upon the child. The international situation undermined feelings of permanence and security. Unrest beset individuals, homes, institutions, and government.

In the midst of these changes, the one factor that influences us the most is television. Not only does it offer us the window to the world and let us realize the commonality of the human experience, it lets the "have nots" realize what the "haves" have. In the process of letting it "educate" us, we have become addicted to it. Estimates say that the average American watches television an average of two to three hours per day. In one study, children watched three to four hours daily. Through television children view violence, real and make-believe. They see floods, disasters, poverty, the effects of inflation, and ecological damage.

Children who are afraid for their safety, as well as the safety of members of their family, cannot concentrate upon educational tasks. A father's depression following the loss of employment depresses the child as well.

The rising divorce rate and the disintegration of the family, which should serve as the child's bulwark against the threatening world, engulf the child with anxiety. Who can learn multiplication when the real "division" is going on about one?

These psychological problems, coupled with the passivity which television breeds, must be investigated as we search for the reasons why some students do not learn.

The people who support the so-called back to basics movement fail to recognize that school's failure is society's failure. Back to basics is a simplistic answer to a complex problem. Not only is it limited in its perception of the problem, it is limited as a goal. In order to function as a capable human being in the world today, each human being must learn to think. This unique ability distinguishes us from animals. We can reason, remember, imagine, predict.

As people capable of rational thought, we must learn to see the relationship between cause and effect, to recognize the interrelationship of all human beings and nature, to assume responsibility for our actions. These abilities should be the end product of the educational process. This will never happen if children are only taught to read, write, compute, and memorize. What was sufficient for the mass of the population 75 years ago can no longer suffice for a person attempting to survive in today's world.

Basics must be taught and learned, however. Without a working knowledge of these basic tools, an individual would be lost. Many of the products of our schools are lost. Our critics tell us

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"The Failure of the Schools"

that we are graduating thousands of students who are not proficient in the basic skills. If this is the case, and I do not question the validity of these accusations, it behooves us to determine why.

It is not that children do not learn to read because schools offer the so-called frills. Music, art, and electives encourage the use of these skills. For example, participation in band may enhance mathematical prowess, for music is a mathematical art.

Rather than blaming the schools in general and the teachers in particular, why are we not coming up with some answers as to why some children are not learning? Do large classes have an effect upon the learning process, especially in the primary grades? What, if anything, prevents the teacher from teaching effectively? What, if anything, precludes the child from learning? How does one's entire life affect the ability to learn?

Each time I question students about their failure to perform adequately in my class, I am reminded that my class is but a small part of their lives. They carry so many burdens that what sometimes has seemed so important to me fades in the face of what their "reality" is.

If we do not recognize that the student's life is the learning environment, we shall not solve the problem that is confronting the entire population.

If back to basics wins popular support, we are in great danger. We will have a population which has even less ability to recognize the overt as well as the covert attempts to manipulate us. We have no defense against subliminal advertising or suggestion. If we are not taught to evaluate, what defense will we have against the open messages that various aspects of society direct to us? We will all watch TV and believe, as many people do, that women's happiness depends upon their husband's white shirts, that masculinity is associated with drinking beer, including the low calorie variety.

The products of basics education, we, the older generation, are the ones who participated in the destruction of the environment, permitted a Watergate to take place, could not evaluate our role in Vietnam. We did learn to read, write, and compute. We memorized names, dates, and places. We did not learn to hypothesize or make decisions. We did not learn to determine what would be the effect of our decisions once we made them. Though we were functional with the "tools," we never learned how to apply them to what really counted.

Another danger of the back to basics movement would be the fostering of elitism. If the great mass of our population concentrates only upon the basic tools, the small group who have further educational opportunities will dominate the country. This process would virtually guarantee the continuance of power in a small group who because of family position are exposed to other things. The child of the poor family, the immigrant family, or the family which does not see the need for education that stimulates the mind will be held down. Can we be a party to this?

How then do we deal with the so-called failure of the educational process and the back to basics solution which seems to be sweeping the nation? The answer seems obvious.

It is time for us to look at ourselves as teachers and honestly determine what has been our role in bringing about such a reaction on the part of many people. It is time for parents to look into themselves. Their role in the educational process is as great as or greater than ours. It is time for them and for us to help students deal with their lives so that they can in fact learn when they have the opportunity to do so.

It is time for all segments of society—parents, teachers, and students—to sit down and try to figure out what education should really be about. The goal of meaningful and effective education can only be achieved if we recognize the validity of each group's concerns and suggestions.

Parents, students, and teachers who want schools to teach only basics and to use traditional methods should have the opportunity to participate in them. Parents, students, and teachers who want schools to continually expand and build upon the basics should have a similar opportunity.

The time is past when we can impose uniform value structures on all people and demand a uniform approach to education for all students. We know, now, that people learn in many different ways. Let us provide them the opportunity to do just that. Then maybe we will be on our way to rectifying the "failure of the schools." □

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"Race Still Intimidates Us"

The evening of our annual fall open house, I stopped to greet the black woman in the corridor. Not just because we are both black, but because she was one of the few parents of our some 300 black students who had accepted the invitation to visit our school. Then, too, she looked like one of the students with whom I had worked; I could not remember whom. As we introduced ourselves, her name reminded me. Yes, I had worked with her son until his schedule had changed recently.

Soon she and I had retired to a quiet room to discuss her son, Robert. She was wondering why Robert, with a good mind, was making such bad grades and why he was being permitted to get by with antisocial behavior. I told her about an experience I had had with her son a few weeks before.

Robert was a typical lively seventh grader who liked to clown around and play in class. What increased this penchant was that he was one of the youngsters who were being bused from the inner city as a result of court-ordered desegregation. These youngsters had been allowed to enter classes late those first few weeks, because in the hassle to get the busing program off the ground, the buses were always late.

Unlike most other youngsters who rode the buses, Robert took advantage of the situation. He would play around in the corridors with a few others from the buses and then enter my first hour class very late indeed. By that time, the class was deeply involved in the various assignments; Robert would interrupt us by relating aloud some exciting experience he had just had on the bus, in the corridors, or in classes the previous day. Needless to say, his own work in my reading class was never completed.

After he had exhausted his classmates' attention, Robert liked to engage mine. Somehow I may have encouraged him, because I realized that these children who were being bused needed a black teacher to whom they could relate. After all, why not? On a faculty of some 125, seven teachers were black. Among a student body of some 2,800, approximately 300 students were black—about half of whom were being bused in.

As the weeks went on, however, Robert began to take advantage of us all. He entered the class with his usual tactics, but he began to add obscenities. At first he uttered them under his breath to his classmates. They would hear and giggle. I heard, too, but I ignored them. As a result, Robert's obscenities became more "adult" and shocking.

Then Robert formed a habit of asking to be excused to "go to the bathroom" after being in class 10 minutes or so.

Finally came the day when he not only asked to be excused but threatened me with the obvious alternative.

In other classes, I had heard, this threat had become common among students of various ethnic backgrounds. I gave Robert his pass. But I also took myself in hand.

Never had I permitted this kind of behavior when I had taught all-black classes in an all-black school. Nor had I condoned it at my present school with majority-group students.

Why was I not at least trying to give Robert some personal counseling? Was I, too, being influenced by the common feeling among teachers that we must "keep hands off" the black student whose behavior is undeniably below the expected social norms?

I decided to my surprise that I, too, had been contaminated. When Robert returned, I stepped into the corridor with him, and we had a long talk. We became friends when Robert learned that I believed he did know better, that I expected the same kind of classroom behavior from him that I did from anyone else, because he was able to deport himself as well as they and even better.

His mother and I went over all this step by step that evening at the open house. She liked my faith in her son's ability to live up to—and excel—minimum recognized social norms. Most black parents do.

Racial integration in education is more than just placing a minority child's body beside those of many majority students. We have to recognize that child's inherent dignity as an individual. And we must challenge every student to achieve as well, and learn as much, as he or she possibly can. □

says **PHYLLIS WYNN WIGGINS**
Reading Resource Teacher,
John Marshall Junior-Senior High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

On Finding Some Real Alternatives

The alternative school movement needs to take a new direction. To support that position, I would first like to sketch the movement's history.

The free schools of the sixties were loose communal schools developed and staffed by radical educators who mixed the political theory of Marx with the psychology of Freud and the educational philosophy of Rousseau to create "free" places where children and young people could grow without the interference of adults.

Initially at least, the free schools had a special sense of vitality; the best of them were able to tap the creative potential of children and youth. But the free school movement is dead, wounded perhaps by its own excesses and finally killed by the conservatism of the seventies.

The "schools of choice" of the seventies were conceived and operated by establishment types like Mario Fantini and me, who were persuaded that pupils and their parents needed choices within the public school system. Some needed traditional schools, we contended, some needed flexible schools, and some needed very open schools. The more choices, the better, we said. This alternative public school movement has demonstrated a surprising capacity to endure, perhaps because it is flexible enough to accommodate shifting fashions in education. Thus, "back to basics" is the slogan currently in favor, and we now have alternative "basics" schools. The other source of strength in the alternative school movement comes from the fact that the small alternative school is usually the best school for the disruptive student. And in a time of violence

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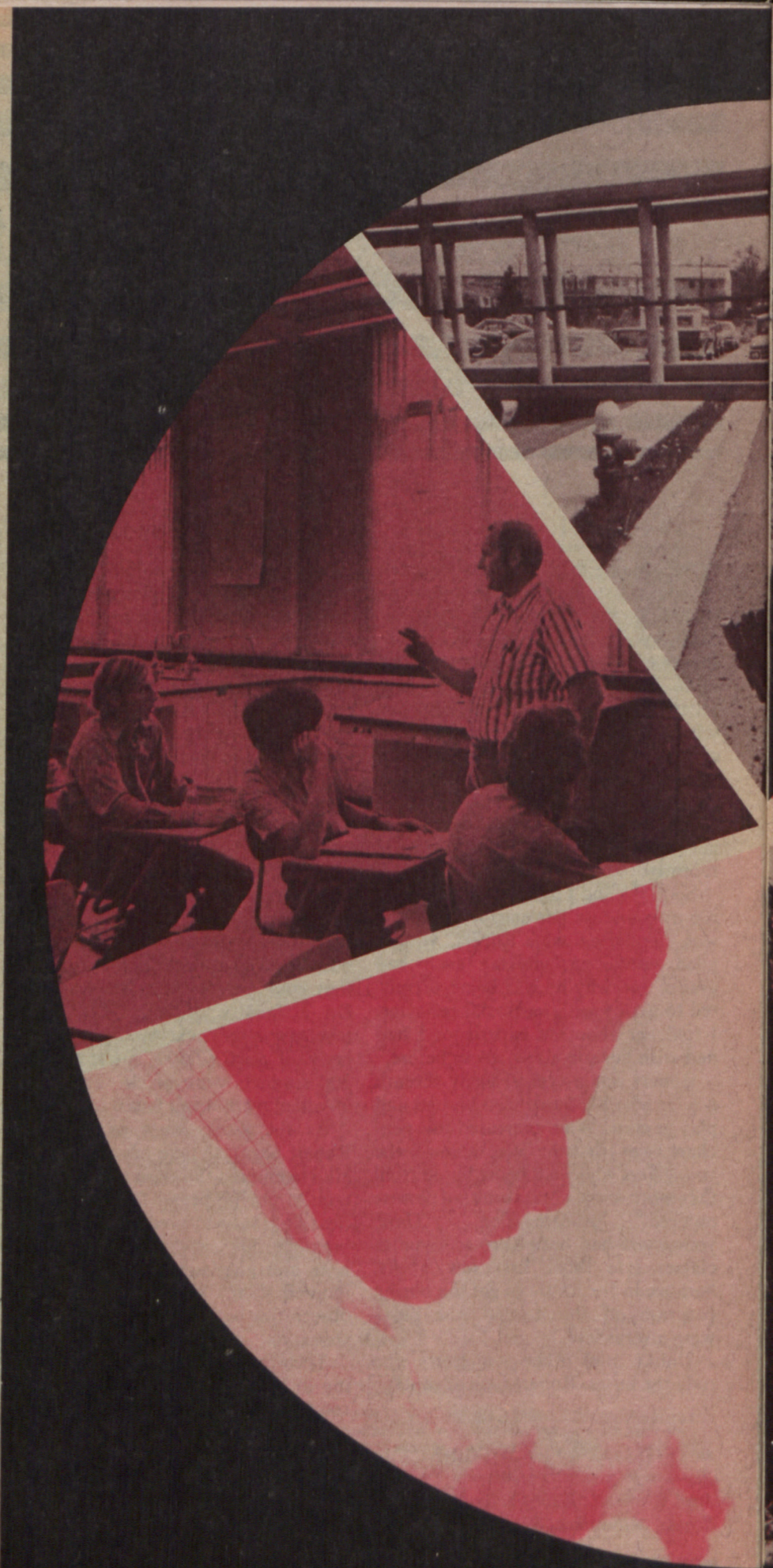


◀ Each of the five different types of experience makes its own unique contribution to growth.

and vandalism in the schools, such options are clearly needed.

Now, however, as we approach a new decade, we need to go beyond our present notion of providing options for students in the kinds of schools they attend; instead, we should provide significantly different types of learning experiences that complement one another in a systematic fashion. We need to provide what I call "cycles of experience."

But before explaining the details of the proposal, I would like to establish a rationale for it by laying out some basic assumptions, many of which run contrary to the thinking of alternative school theorists and practitioners.

The first assumption is that the goal of education is internal, not external, freedom. One weakness of the free school movement is that it ignored the distinction between internal and external freedom. External freedom is the ability to live in the world as we choose—to make our own decisions about where to work, whom to marry, how to vote, where to worship, what to say, what to read, where to live, and how to die. As it manifests itself in the free schools, it requires the absence of adult-imposed rules for the child. It involves such liberties as the right to smoke, the freedom to leave the campus, the ability to move around the classroom, the freedom to speak when one wishes, the right to choose courses and teachers, the freedom to fail without fear of the consequences. External freedom in the society is the bedrock of our democracy—but it is not, in my view, the essential concern of the schools.

The school's central concern, instead, is with internal freedom, the inner growth of the child and the young person. I see this internal freedom as having three dimensions. The first is intellectual freedom—the ability to think independently, to be free of

If we are serious about providing alternatives, then we must think about alternatives to school.

personal and cultural bias, to escape the shackles of dogma, to be open to new ideas. The second is emotional freedom—the ability to free ourselves from the bonds of our passions. If we are emotionally free, we are not dominated by our feelings, not enslaved by need, not crippled by fears. To be emotionally free is to be in control of our own inner weather. Finally, there is freedom of the heart, a sense of existential freedom that comes as an exercise of the will. If we are existentially free, we make choices each day—and accept responsibility for those choices. If we think we are free, we act freely and live out willingly the consequences of those actions.

I think this important distinction between external and internal freedom first became clear to me as I ended my first year as director of an alternative school—a "free school," where all the external freedoms had been granted. I looked around and saw young people shackled by their ignorance, tyrannized by their wants, blaming the world for their problems. So for me the goal is the open heart and the open mind, not the open school. And it is this internal freedom that has become the goal of my own life—to be fully alive at the center. Although I treasure the external freedom that our society has ensured, I know that there are times when I will choose to surrender a measure of that external freedom for the enrichment of the inner self.

And the intriguing paradox is that sometimes only an ordered and structured world can enable us to feel truly free inside. That is the second assumption—that some structures can free. The task of the teacher is to provide a structured environment that will free the student inside. For learning to take place, teachers need to structure the curriculum, the teaching process, the interaction of people, the use of space and time. The question before the teacher, therefore, is not whether structure should be provided—but what types and how much.

The third assumption is that a perfect fit is not the best match. It is here that I take greatest issue with Mario Fantini, a colleague for whom I have great respect. Fantini holds that we should try to arrange for an optimal fit between student and teacher and between student and school environment. In his book *Alternative Education,* he puts it this way, "Alternatives provide new opportunities for a match in teaching and learning styles. Choice lets students select programs that best fit them." Although I also once argued for the desirability of such matching, I now see the need for discordance and dissonance. Growth comes about, I believe, when there is some optimal tension between me and the world, when the environment presents a challenge, when things are not as I wish them to be. In the attempts to come to terms with a discordant environment—to overcome it, to modify it, to shape it for my own ends—I know the pain and joy of meaningful learning. Thus, I have learned from teachers whose teaching style I did not like, and I have grown most in environments I did not choose.

So what the student prefers may not be what the student needs. It is the job of the teacher to look beyond the student's expressed preference and to identify and provide those conditions that will present optimal stress, discomfort, and dissonance.

This role of the teacher relates directly to the fourth assumption: that the world is both open and closed, hard and soft, and students need to learn to live in both worlds. As adults, students will sometimes find themselves in a world of high structure and control—a world of deadlines, rules, bosses, commands, and limits. Success in that world requires the ability to accept and grow from structure and order. But part of adult life is also very open—a world where individuals make their own schedules, set their own goals, choose and solve their own problems. And success in that open world comes only to those who can create order where none exists. The ability to cope successfully with both worlds will come about from guided living and learning in both kinds of environments.

To the student who says, "I prefer a highly structured teacher and a highly structured school," I would reply, "I want you to learn how to survive in an open world, so for a while, try an open school." And to the student who says, "I prefer an easy teacher and an open school," I would answer, "I want you to learn how to live in an ordered world, so for a while, try a traditional school."

The final assumption is that the alternative to school is not school. The various options proposed by Fantini and others are all too similar; they are differences without distinctions. Despite their surface differences of schedule, space, curriculum, and instruction, they are not basically different from each other. They are all places where learning is primarily verbal, where the teacher is the authority, where the problems are unreal, and where the reward is a grade. In short, they are all schools. Now there is nothing essentially wrong with schools, but if we are serious about providing alternatives, then we must think about alternatives to school—growth experiences that are radically different from those that take place in the classroom.

If these assumptions make any sense, they suggest that we need to think about developing cycles of learning experiences—where young people will develop internal freedom, where

the structure will present optimal stress and challenge, where they will learn to live in both an open and closed world, and where the experiences are significantly different from each other. What might these different experiences be? Here I would dissuade educators from simply offering a smorgasbord of 100 different activities; instead I would encourage them to identify a few basic types of growth experiences that will contrast with and complement each other.

I would offer for consideration five cycles of experience, each of which has its own kind of challenge and makes its own unique contribution to growth.

The academy. The factory. The road. The wilderness. The cloister. Each nurtures a different part of the self.

And for each, I choose a simple metaphor to make vivid the contrast.

- *The academy.* One cycle of experience would focus entirely on academic learning. The image is the academy—the citadel of the intellect. The challenge is that of intellectual difficulty. For all students this cycle would emphasize the mastery of the four basic disciplines—English, social sciences, mathematics, and the natural sciences, with foreign language an option.

The academy would emphasize what the classroom seems best to accomplish: the development of basic cognitive processes. The teacher would not try to teach the survival skills needed in the real world. They would be developed in the real world, where they are best learned.

- *The factory.* One cycle would involve the student in a demanding work experience. The image is the factory. The challenge is doing the job well. And the growth is the growth of character that comes from meeting deadlines, following orders, coping with drudgery. Any job would do as long as it involved the hard requirements of punctuality, good attendance, and obedience to authority. All that passes now as career education would be learned in the factory cycle, for we would have teachers monitor students at work, helping them make sense of the experience, making it possible for them to learn from failure, supporting them during the hard times.

More than half of our teenage population aged 16-19 are already in the labor force. For those who have jobs we just need to find ways to accredit the work experience—and facilitate the characterological payoff. For the unemployed and for those who have not sought work, we probably need tax incentives to encourage businesses to create jobs for the factory cycle.

- *The road.* One cycle of experience would require some kind of extended travel to another region, another culture. The image is the road. The challenge is culture shock. And the growth is the personal growth that comes about from adjusting to and learning from a radically different environment. Here again we would attempt to relate the travel experience to the student's learning goals. For the student interested in studying a foreign language, foreign travel would be indicated. For the history buff, a historical journey would be arranged. For those interested in the arts, a cultural tour would be set up. But the continuing thread is the journey over the open road, moving on, learning as you go.

- *The wilderness.* One cycle would require a confrontation with the natural environment. The image is the wilderness. The challenge is nature. And the growth is where the young persons are pushed to the limits, with a highly skilled adult always on hand to be sure that the limits are not transgressed. But through it all the young persons would know the elation that comes from passing a real survival test—camping out, climbing a mountain, swimming a stream. It would be a sure cure for boredom; they would be "tired from," not "tired of."

- *The cloister.* The final cycle would involve the confrontation with self. The image is the cloister. The challenge is silence and aloneness. And the growth is spiritual. We would arrange for a varied series of experiences—most of them short, for young people are not ready for too much self-confronting: spiritual retreats, group encounters, periods of meditation, instruction in yoga and other disciplines. There would be little intellectual challenge and not too many physical demands. Instead the whole intent would be to provide a low-stimuli environment, where the young person could learn how to empty, how to be still, how to confront the void.

The academy. The factory. The road. The wilderness. The cloister. They are different worlds, each hard and soft in its own way, each posing a different challenge, each nurturing a different part of the self.

How do we put the five cycles into operation? I have my own ideas, but at this stage I would invite readers to find their own ways of making the images real. And I would challenge the educational leaders of our country to stop trying to make six more varieties of the place called school and really try to find some alternatives. □

NEA Resolution 77-21: Alternative Programs

The National Education Association supports the development of a broad range of alternatives within the public school system. Programs should emphasize a broad range of activities for responding to students' differing behavioral patterns, interests, needs, and learning styles.

Teachers should provide the major input for determining the nature of programs with assistance of other specialists and advice of parents and students as appropriate. Placement of students in such programs should be made with the involvement of the students, as well as with advice and consent of teachers and parents. These programs must adhere to the minimum standards for staff certification and provide for appropriate class size to meet the specific needs of these students. Additional funding must be provided so that such alternatives do not withdraw support from regular programs.

Programs must be evaluated on stated objectives. Teachers in these programs must have a major role in designing and executing the evaluations.

ARTS ARE FOR LEARNING

Take 280 square meters (3,000 square feet) of drab yellow walls surrounding the courtyard of a one-story school building.

Bring together a professional muralist, five mothers, 17 teachers, several hundred students, and 38 liters (10 gallons) of acrylic paint.

Paint a dozen huge, brilliantly colored scenes of birds, jazz musicians, a safety parade, the city skyline, and a variety of other subjects.

What do you have?

"A project that reduced vandalism to zero," says the principal.

"Something a lot prettier than plain walls," notes a sixth grader.

"A way for kids to put something of themselves into the school," says a parent.

"Definitely an *arts* experience," comments a fourth grade teacher.

By JOAN B. GAINES
Communications Consultant;
Former Director of Public Relations,
Music Educators National Conference.

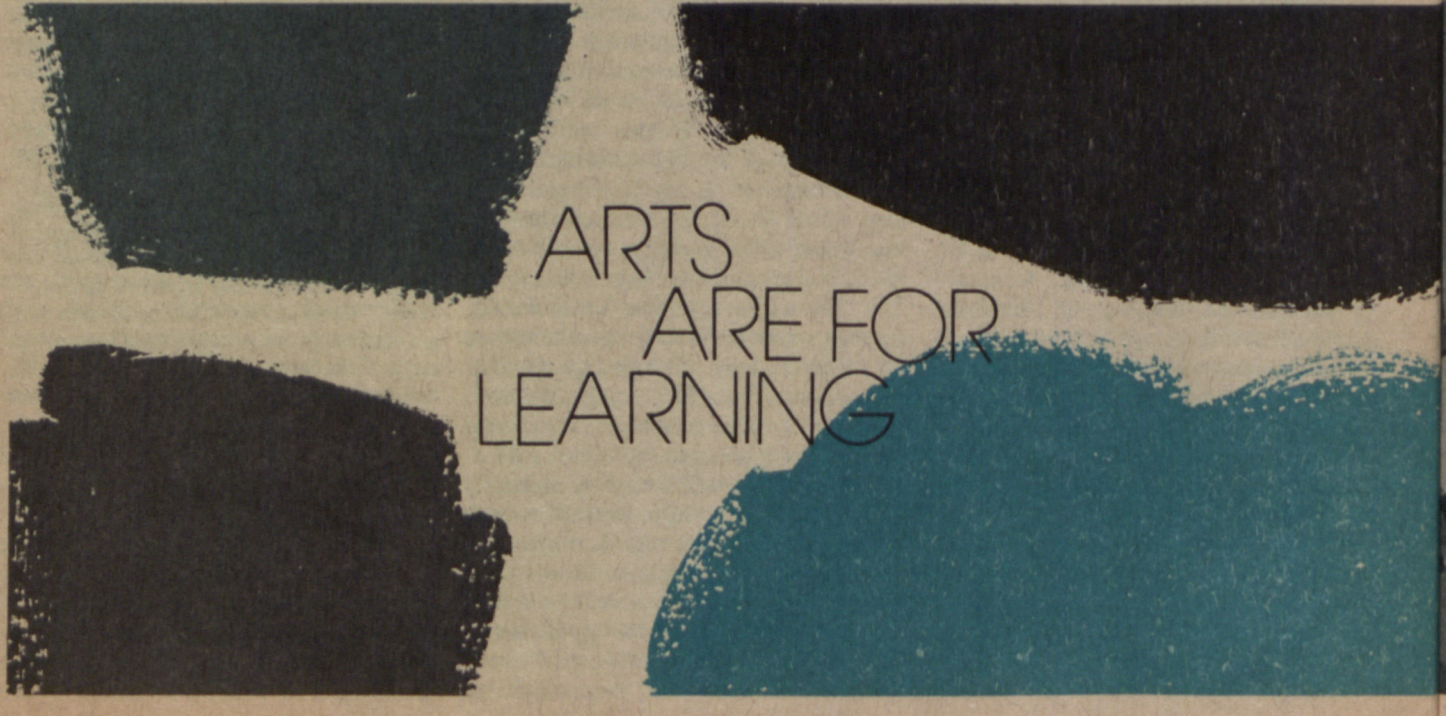
The place is Viewlands Elementary School in northwest Seattle, where some 400 students are involved in an Arts for Learning Project that began in 1975. The goal: "to improve the quality of education for all students by integrating all the arts into their basic education."

In Seattle, the project involves six pilot elementary schools, a coordinator, a high-powered Advisory Committee, start-up funding from the Junior League, and a direct tie-in with the JDR (John D. Rockefeller) 3rd Fund in New York, which has six cities (including Seattle) moving ahead full speed with Arts in Education programs.

How did Viewlands get into the project? By applying voluntarily to be part of a three-year demonstration phase of the project. Ruth Pinegar, third grade teacher, remembers the faculty meeting when Viewlands first talked about becoming involved. "We'd had the double levy failure in Seattle and were facing cutbacks in staff, field trips, equipment, and other things. This project seemed like a breath of fresh air. And as it turned out, it's adding a lot of excitement to the school. It's brought a change of pace that's freeing to everybody." She stresses the key role of Viewlands' principal in giving the teachers a feeling that the project was worthwhile and that they could participate successfully.

Mural painting grew out of early staff discussions about how to integrate the arts with ongoing curriculum and resources in the school. Seattle has a young muralist, Philip Matzigkeit, whose style is broad, bright, and cheerful. Someone suggested that he might be the person to bring professional know-how to the walls and the children. Graffiti had become a problem; wall surfaces were also marred with gouges and scratches.

Matzigkeit describes himself as "unsure" as he began to work with teachers and students at Viewlands.



What subjects should be chosen? He wanted the children to express themselves freely, without adult pressure. Sometimes it took several tries for a consensus to emerge, and then it would be something as vague as "animals." His task as professional artist was to combine the elements provided by a class into a composition that would cover almost 28 square meters (300 square feet)—the size of most of Viewlands' wall areas. Children drew their versions of birds, animals, people, or other subjects on big sheets of newsprint. These he transposed onto the outside walls, often using an overhead projector. Once sketched into place, the mural was ready for painting, and students formed teams of four or five to lay in the colors that had been chosen.

"I found that the high-energy kids—those who may have been responsible for the worst vandalism—frequently turned out to be the best mural painters," says Matzigkeit. "Then there are the ones who have a chronic sense of failure. One such boy painted a turkey, a glorious mess, for a farm scene. He wanted to paint it out, and the other kids urged him to, but I persuaded him to leave it. That did something important for his ego. I honestly think mural painting could become a powerful tool to help kids like that."

When funds ran out for Matzigkeit's services, the mother of a Viewlands fourth grader took over to supervise three more murals. She comments on the lack of frustration and hostility among children involved in the painting. "They were doing something much bigger than they'd ever done before and they respected the fact that cooperation was essential. They had to follow definite directions to make it come out right."

While murals stand as a major, visible product of arts activity at Viewlands, music, drama, film-making, puppetry, printmaking, dance, and pottery are other art forms that have enlivened the school during the past year. In many instances, community arts resources provided leadership. Throughout, however, a sharp focus has been on identifying and using talents and skills within the school's own teaching staff—talents that could be shared or exchanged to bring more arts to more children.

For a fourth grade science unit on the production of sound, music teacher Sue Talbot has students make their own instruments and then perform on them to learn about sound. Some made percussion or stringed instruments; others, marimbas.

A film specialist came into the school to help fourth grade teacher Margaret Walters and students get started with film animation. This project called for a sophisticated degree of organization. For purposes of animation, the movement of a figure had to be translated into units of time and then into frames per second. Outlining the storyline, detailing every step of the animation, planning exposures, backgrounds, and credits—all of this

High-energy kids—those who may have been responsible for the worst vandalism—frequently turned out to be the best mural painters, according to Artist Philip Matzigkeit.

was accomplished during the project.

To prepare for a Native American unit, first, second, and fifth grade teachers met for a half-day planning session. Subsequently, a second grader wrote a play, "The Angry Moon," based on an Indian legend. The school brought in a Native American actor, who helped with dances, masks, and staging of the play. To climax the project, a local TV station taped the production as part of a program on the "quality of Seattle life" as seen through the eyes of children.

A different type of art exposure is the "complete in-school theater experience" presented by four youthful professional actors under the auspices of Seattle Junior Programs. Last fall, grades three to six saw a performance of "The Captain's Fabulous Acting Company," a fantasy about the magic of learning, followed by 40 minutes of classroom contact with the actors. Children had a chance to ask questions and try out techniques of pantomime that had been featured in the play. They became moving parts of "washing machines," "bubble gum machines," and a "sheet metal assembly line." "I learned how to hold an invisible ball," said one sixth grader. "They learned to be *me* being somebody else," said a teacher.

The goal is to improve education for all children by using all the arts in the daily teaching-learning process.

To first grade teacher Ruth Mickens, art experiences definitely help to open up imagination. She believes that "kids today have to be taught to imagine. TV-watching has crippled their capacity to fantasize. You ask them to lie on their backs, look at clouds, and conjure up shapes and objects, and they'll have a hard time doing it."

In the initial planning workshops for the six-school Arts for Learning Project, teachers and principals took part in dance, drama, bookmaking, batik, Indian legends, and other experiences led by guest artists.

According to Ann Reich, program coordinator for Seattle's Arts in Education Project, "turning on" classroom teachers usually begins with opportunities to work with artists and specialists. "Teachers also become involved through planning with other teachers, both in general staff meetings and during release time," she says. "We were able to provide some funds for that because we believe it should happen within the regular work day—not outside. For instance, when the film expert came to Viewlands, almost all the teachers had a chance to observe while a substitute covered classes.

"There are lots of 'people' resources, both amateur and professional, in the community and in the district schools. Initially the central Arts in Education office can bring these resources together with the teachers. Later teachers don't need us as a middleman because they make their own contacts and arrangements, working with the principal. It's a collaboration.

"We're not trying to turn classroom teachers into arts specialists. In Seattle, budget cuts almost wiped out arts specialists in the elementary schools. One way we can make a case for bringing them back into the system is to have classroom teachers prepared to work with them in a changed school climate. In the end we believe the demand for the arts will be much greater."

At the beginning of the third year of the project, the question is, "What is different about this approach? Aren't the same things happening in other schools without the impetus of such a project?"

The difference is elusive, but it could be real and important.

Jane Remer, assistant director of the JDR 3rd Fund's Arts in Education Program, writes, "A comprehensive arts in general education program is not simply a cultural enrichment program, an arts exposure project, or a curriculum development effort. . . . [It] is a long-range school development effort whose goal is to improve the quality of education for all children by incorporating all the arts in the daily teaching and learning process, kindergarten through high school. . . . The arts are seen as tools for learning in all subjects, media for expression and self-discovery, and important areas of study in their own right. These programs have also been recognized as an impetus for total school change."

At the end of the first year, principals of the six pilot schools in Seattle gave the following informal evaluations:

- Students have demonstrated an increased understanding and appreciation of the traditional cultural arts and of the arts of minorities.
- Students have demonstrated an increased enthusiasm in classroom work.
- Attendance has improved considerably.
- Teachers have demonstrated a desire to improve their teaching of the arts and to integrate them throughout the curriculum.
- Teachers have demonstrated pride in their own accomplishments in the arts and have shared their skills with others.
- The community has demonstrated increased interest and pride in school programs.

At Viewlands, teachers commented that—

- "The project is helpful and enriching."
- "It's the most effective way of teaching basic skills, awareness, values, and cultural pluralism."
- "Throughout my teaching career I'll be using the arts as a vehicle more and more."

And a group of Viewlands sixth graders show new critical awareness as they guide a visitor through the building and talk about "their" murals.

- "The colors are good in this one."
- "It's too crowded, I think."
- "I like the way the eagle's painted."

And they don't overlook the social ramifications:

- "No more dirty words on the walls."
- "It makes you proud to know you painted the school." □

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The story of the Chicano Education Project

When he looks across the desert floor to the lower slopes of the mountains, glowing in the late afternoon sun, Bill Cordova thinks that when he dies he will be lonely for this sight.

Cordova was born in this flat, dry country on the Western Slope of Colorado's Rocky Mountains in the town of Montrose, and he loves it, although summer days here are often over 38° C (100°F) and the winters can be bitterly cold.

Cordova and his wife were teenage sweethearts and married very young; they have lived in Montrose all their married life, except for a few years in nearby Delta. Bill has worked at a lot of jobs—sometimes traveling with construction crews and returning home for only one day a week—to support his wife, himself, and their seven children.

Cordova recalls his schooldays, when he was forbidden to speak his native Spanish and was punished for doing so. He recalls, too, the frustration of a teenage daughter who dropped out of high school because she couldn't stand being excluded from the mainstream of high school students. In a generation of the Cordova family, only the forms of discrimination changed; the fact was still there.

Many Chicano families in Colorado shared the Cordovas' predicament. The parents were unhappy with the education their children were receiving in the public schools. The children also were not satisfied—even now at least half of them drop out before they reach high school.

But what could parents do about it? Most Chicanos in the Southwest spend most of their time and energy at low-paying jobs, struggling to keep their children in food and clothes. They have neither the time nor the resources to do much more.

The Western Slope, moreover, is isolated from the Denver metropolitan area, where most of the state's financial and professional resources are located. The Chicanos there make up about 15 percent of the population but have virtually no voice in government.

In the past two years, two things have changed life for the Cordova family and for a lot of other Chicanos on the Western Slope. One is the Chicano Education Project; the other is Colorado's two-year-old Bilingual-Bicultural Education Act.

When the Chicano Education Project came to life in 1973, it was embodied in three young men: Federico Pena, Bill Rosser, and Gilbert Cisneros. They began with their savings, an idea, a lot of energy, and dedication.

The idea was to provide Chicano parents with the research and resources to get a voice in how their children are educated. Although the Project works throughout the state, it has concentrated its efforts in areas where there are large numbers of Chicano students and where parents are without local resources to act.

Bill Cordova recalls the political climate and his own state of mind in 1973. "I was going to meetings, and I found myself shouting." Usually soft-spoken, Cordova was frustrated by the intransigence of the local school board, the city council, the police department.

Cordova decided he had to withdraw from confrontations and find more effective ways to make changes. He and other Chicano residents began to organize into community groups and search for effective action. When they heard about the Chicano Education Project, they asked for help in gathering statistics and information about methods of educating non-English-speaking students that other states and communities had tried.

By JANE EARLE
Executive Editor,
The Denver Magazine.

Soon after that, in January 1974, the U.S. Supreme Court in the *Lau* decision ruled that the San Francisco schools must overcome language barriers to learning on the part of Chinese-speaking students or be threatened with the loss of federal aid. The decision became the impetus for the first serious, statewide bilingual education movement in Colorado.

Parent groups in Montrose and Grand Junction, the largest city of the Western Slope, also filed suit against their school districts, demanding bilingual-bicultural education for their children. Bill Cordova and his wife, Elsie, were among the plaintiffs.

The parents' demands met a cool reception from school officials and the boards of education. Some teachers, however, liked the idea of bilingual education. They understood the Chicano parents' desire to have their children learn something about the contributions of their culture to the history of the Southwest.

One of these early supporters was George Field. He was the president of the Uncompahgre Valley Education Association, which serves the towns of Montrose, Olathe, and Coal Creek. Field teaches special education work-study at the high school in Montrose. The school year following the filing of the lawsuit, Field voluntarily introduced some Chicano culture elements into his classroom.

Not many textbooks were available, and Field had to rewrite most of the material he could find for the special needs of his students. He invited Cordova and other parents into his classroom to help with the program.

Bruce Grigsby started a new high school class—a bicultural view of the history of the Southwest and a new look at Chicano culture in the context of contemporary American society. Although the course fell outside Grigsby's discipline (he's an English teacher), he agreed to teach it because Chicano parents wanted it.

The class is about evenly divided between Chicanos and Anglos, Grigsby says. He believes it has already helped to relieve tensions in the school and has changed some attitudes. "It has given the Chicano students a better self-concept and the Anglo students a look at a stereotype that many now see is ridiculous."

Grigsby has now turned the class over to what he calls a "more qualified colleague—I don't even speak Spanish," but he continues supporting bilingual-bicultural education.

The second event that has begun to change life for Chicano students and their parents was passage of Colorado's Bilingual-Bicultural Education Act. During the debate on the bill—the hardest-fought battle of the 1975 session of the Colorado legislature—Chicano parents again found that teachers were their firm allies.

One of the bill's most controversial provisions was its requirement of community (parent) committees. Local school boards were to develop bilingual-bicultural education programs to be submitted to the State Department of Education for funding. The parent committees were to pass on these plans. They would also review applications for jobs and help take the census of students which would determine whether a school had enough "linguistically different" students to qualify for a state-funded program.

The bill gave parents more control over their children's education than any legislation anywhere in the country had ever done before. To some it represented the threat that Chicanos would "take over" the state's schools.

The Colorado Education Association (CEA) is a powerful influence on the state legislature, and its support was a key element in the bill's passage. When CEA's lobbyists said teachers would be willing to work with the parent committees, some of the most reluctant legislators decided to vote "aye" on the final ballot.

The law currently requires that any school in which at least 50 children (or 10 percent of the children) are linguistically different (that is, children whose families speak another language or who come from an environment of different customs and traditions) must give students in kindergarten through the third grade bilingual-bicultural education. Parents (both Anglo and minority) then may choose whether they want their children in the bilingual classroom. The law covers any linguistically different group, but Colorado's 80,000 Chicano students are the largest group affected. Of the 14,000 children currently being served, most are Chicano.

With the law in effect, the state is straining its resources to provide training both for the parents serving on community committees and for the teachers who suddenly find themselves in bilingual classrooms.

Although the State Department of Education holds regional bilingual training sessions for both teachers and parents, it isn't always possible for teachers to attend them. The Chicano Education Project has again been able to help relieve some of the problems of Western Slope teachers and parents by bringing expert advisers to the area to run local workshops.

Lynette Bulla, a teacher at an elementary school near Grand Junction, chairs the Human Relations Committee of the Mesa Valley Education Association. (This association serves Grand Junction and several neighboring communities.) A lot of teachers didn't understand what the bilingual program is all about, she says, but teacher workshops—organized by the local association and paid for by teachers individually—have gone a long way toward changing that situation.

Despite the suit filed against it, the local school district didn't supply any teacher training for the program last year. The Chicano Education Project put on a workshop, and Ms. Bulla's committee raised money to help pay for it.

This year teachers are receiving the bilingual program a lot better, Ms. Bulla says. Her committee now has a project to heighten the awareness of teachers dealing with bilingual students.

The cooperation of teachers and parents and, often, the fundamental knowledge supplied by Chicano Education Project staff have made real changes in the education of Chicano students on the Western Slope during the past two years.

The new problems, like training for bilingual classes, are themselves signs of progress. The Project staff is expanding to meet the new needs: Bill Cordova now works as education specialist for the Western Slope.

The changes have created new hope among Chicano parents, at least in Montrose, that a new day in education for their children may be at hand. □

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Books

Does Anybody Give a Damn? Nat Hentoff on Education by **Nat Hentoff.** Knopf. 245 pp. $8.95.

Does anybody give a damn about whom? Nat Hentoff does give a damn about the education students get. He does give a damn about a few principals, a retired community school board superintendent, and a former chancellor of the New York City schools, because he respects their views on how to teach supposedly uneducable kids. He emphatically does *not* give a damn about what teachers think or what happens to them so long as his own ideas about how to educate students are carried out.

In the first half of Hentoff's disorganized book, the primary thesis is that the 23 percent of U.S. children who fail to graduate from high school (the percentage among urban, Third World students is much higher) can be taught more successfully if educators follow the precept of Kenneth B. Clark that "the essential ingredient in teaching children is to respect the child by *insisting* that he does learn."

In lengthy accounts of and by two dedicated principals who have acted on this precept (one eliminated an entire vocal music department as well as other individual teachers to get the teachers he wanted), Hentoff makes a good case that a positive outlook toward students and inculcation of a positive outlook in the students themselves can go a long way toward improving their success rate.

The second half of the book raises several questions crucial to education, particularly in cities:

- Does racism play a significant role in the failure of urban education? Hentoff suggests it does, but he changes the subject as soon as he asks the question.
- Has inadequate funding of education (serious even in good economic times, worse now) been a problem? Yes, but this can be overcome somewhat, he implies, by caring educators whose self-sacrifice—low pay, no pay (volunteers, student teachers), and long hours including weekends—will work wonders.
- Is accountability the solution? Definitely. Teacher accountability—through renewable tenure, for example—seems to be the key.

Hentoff's humanistic approach to children is belied by his contempt for the masses of educators, especially teachers. And like many other "reformers," Hentoff refuses to recognize what bosses (including boards of education) know and count on instinctively: that workers will put their own collective survival before philanthropic delusions. Talk about mutual, multilateral accountability, and boards of education drop the subject. So does Hentoff.

—Reviewed by **John Norman,** *social science teacher, Plainview-Old Bethpage Middle School, Plainview, New York; vice-president, Plainview-Old Bethpage Congress of Teachers.*

Teaching Styles and Pupil Progress by **Neville Bennett.** Harvard University Press. 201 pp. $7.95.

"Do various teaching styles differentially affect the intellectual and emotional growth of pupils? and Do different types of pupils perform better under certain teaching styles than others?" are the two questions Neville Bennett, lecturer at Britain's University of Lancaster, attempted to answer in his research.

In seeking answers to the questions, Bennett continues the pervasive myth that "formal teaching style" is closed or structured and "informal teaching style" is open or permissive. From the basic assumption, he developed a strategy for identifying formal, "mixed," and informal teachers and then tested their effectiveness in classrooms in a variety of British schools, including both urban and rural and church and state-supported ones.

The main finding, according to Jerome Bruner, author of the Preface, is that the "more formal the teaching, the more time pupils spend working on the subject matter and, in general . . . the more they improve at it." This may be true for those students with those teachers in those British schools. But if these conclusions are to be generalized to all teachers and all students in all schools, including American schools, then good research design requires that some basic assumptions must be considered.

Since it is seldom possible to assign students randomly to classrooms for research purposes, it is an accepted practice to assign teachers randomly to use the educational method being tested. But that was not Bennett's procedure.

He identified teaching styles by asking all third and fourth year (grade) teachers in one area to respond to a questionnaire that asked whether or not they did such things as assign seating, give tests and homework, allow talking, or teach individual subjects separately. Then he grouped together teachers whose responses showed similar profiles. This resulted in 12 groups that he placed on a continuum ranging from most informal to most formal. He reduced these to three categories—informal, mixed, formal. From these three, he selected 37 teachers whose profiles met his criteria and who agreed to participate. The students in the study were the pupils of these teachers.

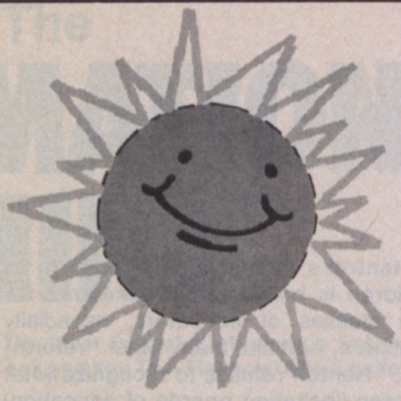
Another research assumption is that the student populations subjected to each strategy do not differ statistically from each other in characteristics that might relate to achievement—for example, social class or academic ability. But according to Bennett, children in Roman Catholic schools and schools oriented toward the eleven-plus selective examination were more likely to be in formal classrooms, while children in rural schools were more likely to be in informal ones. Further, of those students scoring in the lowest category on a reading achievement pretest, only 20 were in the formal group but 44 were in the informal group. And on the same test, 53 of the formal group scored in the highest category while only 36 of the informal group did. Similar differences were found among pretest achievement scores in other academic subjects.

Statistically, the researcher can control for these differences among students. But classroom teachers must deal with the differences in their own classrooms. Bennett assumes that all formal teachers deal with them in one way and that all informal teachers deal with them in another way.

If his assumptions are valid, then his findings can be accepted, and perhaps teachers should adjust their teaching styles according to Bennett's criteria. If, however, the assumptions are questionable, then the answers to Bennett's two questions still elude us.

Reviewed by **Vivian A. Sheridan,** *elementary school teacher, Seven Locks*

How smart teachers catch up on summer time bills.



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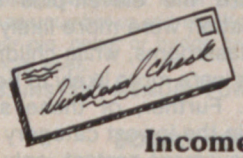

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Books

(continued)

School, Montgomery County, Maryland. The effects of independent study programs on middle school students was the subject of Dr. Sheridan's doctoral dissertation.

The Over-Educated American by **Richard B. Freeman**. Academic Press. 218 pp. $12.

The title is misleading. This book deals with the oversupply of college graduates for the number of jobs available. It contains a review and analysis of evidence relating to the causes, effects, and trends in the current job market for higher education graduates.

The book presents the following theses or conclusions that may interest teachers, scholars, and policymakers:

- Young people place very high priority upon economic incentives when they decide to enroll in higher education.
- Despite the steadily increasing numbers of higher education graduates each year between 1960 and 1968, the proportion of the male work force consisting of new graduates seeking employment did not grow during this period because of increased proportions going on to graduate school.
- Adjustment efforts of the federal government have tended to increase instead of decrease the severity of imbalances between numbers of jobs and numbers of new graduates in particular specialities.
- For the first time in recent history, the economic value of an investment in a college education decreased in the 1970's.
- Supply-demand imbalances tend to occur in four or five year cycles as college students overreact first to evidence of an oversupply and then to the resultant undersupply in the marketplace.

These are theses, not final conclusions, based on a wide array of evidence. The book cites the limitations of available evidence as well as the absence of data needed for firm support of these and other findings.

The book is valuable because it will increase public understanding of a critical problem. Also, the trend information reported will be useful in the evaluation of current conditions.

A companion volume is needed to review similar job market trends in the 1970's for the young adult population as a whole. For example, the proportion of the population aged 20 to 24 who were

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18. Instructional Materials: Selection and Purchase. The revised edition (1976) published in cooperation with the Association of American Publishers. Addresses 14 recommendations in the selection of textbooks to school board members, administrators, teachers, curriculum specialists, librarians, and media specialists. Major emphasis is on the process of selection, rather than on specific criteria for evaluating materials in specific subject areas. ~~$3.00~~ **$1.65**

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Books

(continued)

unemployed and looking for full-time work in May was 5.0 percent in 1969 and has been between 11.0 and 14.7 percent in 1975 through 1977. And among 18 to 24 year olds who have four years of high school as their highest level of preparation, the unemployment rate was 5.9 percent in 1969 and 14.8 percent in 1976.

In contrast, among this age group having four years or more of college, the unemployment rate was 2.4 percent in 1969 and 6.4 percent in 1976. So despite the decline in recent years in the proportional economic advantage college-educated workers have enjoyed over those without degrees, college graduates on the average still earn more and are less likely to be unemployed than their counterparts with less education.

Oversupply conditions now affect a broad segment of our work force. Enlightened actions are needed to ensure better use of young people who have completed each level of educational preparation. One wishes that Freeman had been more optimistic about the desirability and likelihood of federal actions to make needed improvements.

Reviewed by **William S. Graybeal,** *NEA Research.*

The Plug-In Drug by **Marie Winn.** Viking Press. 231 pp. $8.95.

This short, popular, provocative book about television, children, and the family sounds an alarm about a widespread plague that probably affects almost every classroom in the country. *The Plug-In Drug* will make teachers stop and think hard about television as an overwhelmingly important and often underestimated daily force in their pupils' lives.

The author presents a few wild notions. For example, it doesn't make sense to attack Action for Children's Television for its worthy efforts to improve program quality and stop the worst of the commercial rip-off. But except for these, Winn has done a superior job of setting forth issues that deserve the attention of anyone who wants to understand some of the *real* effects television has upon children—as children today and as adults tomorrow.

Winn's main thesis is unusual among critiques of television, and we should give it a special hearing. She contends that the major problem of the relation between television and children is not that of program content, serious as that problem is. She holds that the real danger of television lies in the nature of the medium, with its addictive power to trap viewers in swamps of mindless passivity, illusions of action, and virtual quarantine from genuine human encounters.

In effect, she says, it isn't what the kids watch on TV that's so bad for them; it's how they watch it, how much they watch it, and that they watch it at all.

In her eyes, *Sesame Street* and the so-called "good" programs are just as worthless for children's real developmental needs as the most atrocious shoot-em-ups—if the kids watch with the detached, unquestioning, trance-like immobility we so often see in those who spend two or three hours or more each day in front of the TV set.

Drawing her support from a wide range of research, observation, and anecdotes, Winn claims that the addiction to television viewing common among millions of our children at all socioeconomic and educational levels is the symptom of a potentially serious developmental illness. She draws together strong arguments that the TV habit afflicting many of our children reduces their ability to develop realistic self-understanding and social understanding that are essential for effective growth. Teachers will be especially interested in her analysis of what television addiction does to language and reading skills.

As I read these well-paced chapters, I linked Winn's ideas to dozens of conversations and consultations I have had with conscientious teachers and parents who are troubled about the immediate and long-range effects television addiction has on children. They are worried, I am worried, and Winn is worried about where it all leads.

Her solution to a complex problem is simplistic: turn off the TV sets, go cold turkey, and lead a healthier life. America just isn't going to cut back sharply on its favorite pastime, no matter what our children's welfare requires. It's not likely that many TV-addicted households will follow Marie Winn's prescription. But all who are responsible for educating our children will probably understand them better if we study and think about this appraisal of their common, almost universal ailment.

Reviewed by **Bernard Z. Friedlander,** *professor of psychology, and director, New England Instructional Television Research Center, University of Hartford, West Hartford, Connecticut.*

Classroom Tips

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Mrs. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary levels for possible use in future issues. Mrs. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

No matter how we feel about the holiday season, it relentlessly reappears. For youngsters especially, it is a time of high excitement.

One holiday assignment might be to have students do something creative in connection with their own family traditions. Depending upon the class, students might compose songs or instrumental music, paint pictures, do original needlework or woodwork, write something pertinent in a foreign language, or write poems, short stories, or essays—all in celebration of one or more family holiday customs. Have the students try to forget the romanticized, stylized holiday concepts and instead observe exactly what goes on in their own households.

If individuals feel their families have no traditions, perhaps they might start some, vowing henceforth to sing annually their created songs or recite their original poems or display their art or craftwork or serve certain delicacies first concocted this year.

Joann Edgington's senior English students at Watertown (Tennessee) High School climaxed their research on Elizabethan England with an Elizabethan-style Christmas party. They began (American style) by appointing committees for decorations, games, entertainment, and refreshments.

The students on the decorations committee went to two different libraries looking for information, but they came back with the cry, "We can't find anything." They had been searching for books or complete chapters with the exact titles they wanted. Ms. Edgington suggested more indirect sleuthing: Look at pictures of the period and read some of Shakespeare's poems. "Heigh Ho the Holly" indicates that the Elizabethans used holly, and the story of mistletoe reveals that its use dates back to the Celts. Thus, the project gave students an opportunity to apply facts and *think* rather than expect all information to be spelled out for them.

The games committee learned about the variety of children's games of the period, and the entertainment committee researched diversions other than games—poems of the period including nursery rhymes whose origins related to customs and events of the Elizabethan Age, carols (the first English carol was written during this era), and so on.

The urge to make a chocolate cake sent the refreshments committee cooks to the library, where they discovered that chocolate had not been introduced into England at that time. Sugar was just coming into widespread use but was not yet the primary sweetener, so the committee sweetened their cakes with molasses and honey.

On party day, the classroom was bedecked with mistletoe, holly, old lamps, wooden bowls, oval portraits, and maps of Sir Francis Drake's Raid. In various sections of the room, students were playing checkers (known as draughts during Shakespeare's time); backgammon; a forerunner of shuffleboard, played with a penny on top of the teacher's desk; and a guessing game similar to "rock school."

The crowning touch was a student dressed Elizabethan fashion—or almost. Even substitutions provided teaching opportunities, for students explained to the entire class the authenticity (or lack of it) of their projects, and their substitutions had to be justifiable representations of the real items.

The project took only two class periods to complete: one for rehearsing and assembling bulletin boards and displays; the other for the actual performance, the explanations, playing games, and, of course, enjoying the refreshments. (A more detailed description of Ms. Edgington's project appears in the December 1975 issue of *The Tennessee Teacher.*)

How about a guest in the classroom? James N. King, a junior high school science teacher in Cumberland, Wisconsin, suggests a Teacher Exchange Program.

For Cumberland's experiment, a committee contacted all teachers and administrators and explained that those participating in the Teacher Exchange Program would be assigned some other person's responsibilities for one day during a special week. Full participation was encouraged but not pushed, and only five out of a possible 80 did not take part. (The superintendent and several principals offered to take turns as teachers.)

To keep confusion at a minimum, not too many changes were scheduled in any one area for any one day. The students were involved and understood what was being done and why.

A party was planned for Friday night of *the* week so that everyone could talk about what had happened. Heavy snow canceled that, but participants did evaluations by questionnaire. Reaction was so favorable that Cumberland decided to repeat the program the following year. Perhaps the other fellow's job (which looks so easy through the door) turned out to be tough after all, and one's own turf more desirable in comparison.

Since the exchange teacher may be considered the guest of the students, their responses might be recorded also. That perhaps sounds chancy, but children are usually fair when asked anything so important as their opinion. The visitor might even find the comments flattering.

Well, guests are delightful most of the time. Some, though, are too talkative, and not much can be done about that at home. In the classroom, however, a three-minute egg timer can control the loquacious child who hogs the show-and-tell hour. When the sands have run out, so has the child's time, even if the best is yet to be.

Joan Mary Macey of Horace Mann Elementary School in Binghamton, New York, whose egg timer we are talking about, also "sets" it when she wants the children to finish up an activity or clean up in three minutes. She finds it handy again in teaching the three's: How many times must the timer be inverted to mark an hour, for instance?

Ms. Macey offers another idea that some teachers may find useful. She says that the educational value of the

Classroom Tips

(continued)

jigsaw puzzle is easy to overlook.

The puzzle picture itself often has social studies or art value. The geometric shape of the puzzle—square, rectangle, circle—can be noted. Perimeter and area can be taught with square and rectangular puzzles; circumference, area, and diameter, with round ones. Children enjoy checking these measurements for themselves.

And, of course, puzzles offer an opportunity for several children to work together after they finish their regular assignments, while they wait for the bus, or when they must spend a rainy lunch hour indoors.

Fifth grade classes from Pleasant Street School in Ashland, Ohio, have been taking the same excursion for the last three years. Their destination: Washington, DC.

According to Jenice Gallaway, her class and another fifth grade sell popcorn, candy, calendars, and baked goods to earn most of the money for the trip, which a travel agency arranges. While the cash is rolling in, the children are simultaneously studying about Washington and all the places they will see. When they finally arrive in the Capitol, those fine marble and stone buildings are history come to life.

Although they have yet to meet the President, a highlight for these traveling fifth graders is having a picture taken with their Congressional representative on the steps of the Capitol.

There is something ever so pleasant about a roomful of people sociably matching wits over a game.

As this column has suggested before, games often provide the quickest way to get a point across. Sharyn Evans of Middletown (New Jersey) High School has found four games effective in teaching high school math.

In Ms. Evans's version of bingo, she gives each student a card with 25 blank squares. The students write a different number between one and 50 in each square. Ms. Evans then reads a problem whose answer will be some number from one to 50. Each student tries to solve the problem, then find and mark the matching number on his or her card. The first one to complete a row across, down, or diagonally wins.

As the students solve problems, Ms. Evans lets them explain the solutions to the class. The problems have a wide range of difficulty so that even the slower students can explain solutions.

A second game has three parts: (a) unscrambling words with dual meanings (i.e., *sorot* becomes *roots*), (b) looking in a dictionary for the mathematical meaning of the chosen words, and (c) class discussions of the words in question.

In a third game, each student suggests in writing an occupation related to math and next, with the teacher's help, finds out how that occupation uses math in its everyday routine. The class then has 20 questions in which to discover what each occupation is.

A fourth game, a scavenger hunt, offers practice in the metric system. Pupils are given certain metric measurements and must locate objects of that size. Through this game, students begin thinking in metric. □

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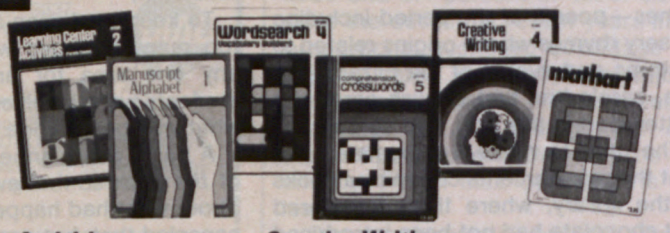

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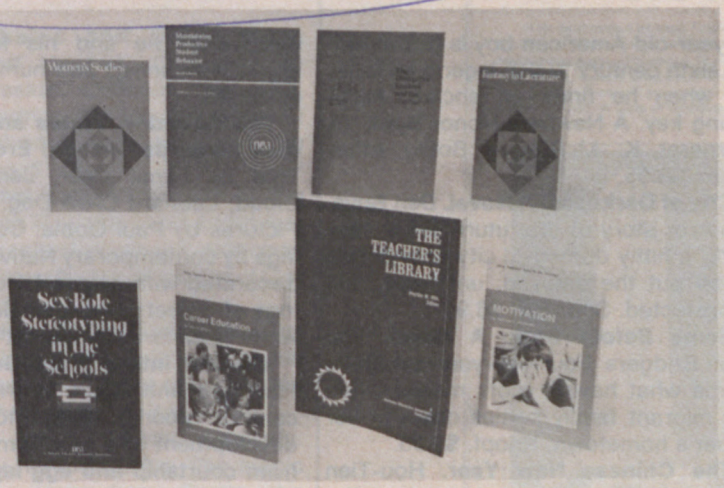

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Many of the books are available in Braille, talking books, or large type. Consult your regional library for the blind.

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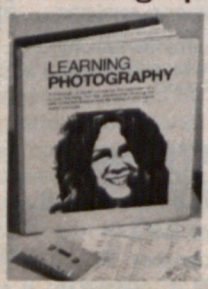

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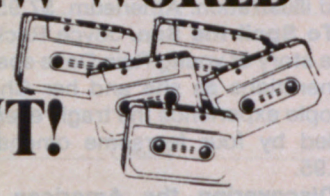

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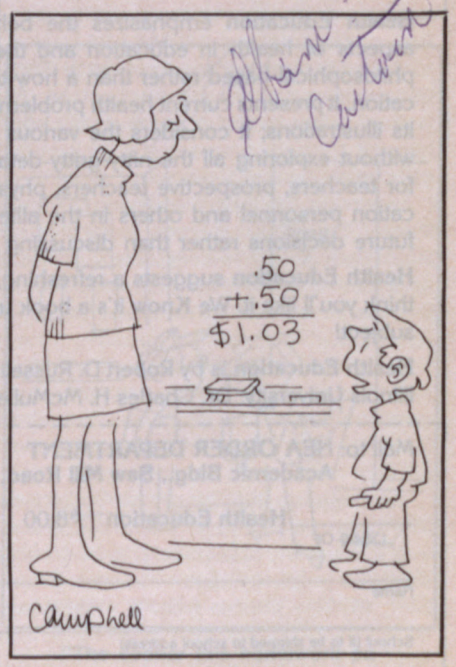

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 13

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If Wishes Were Horses . . . Beggars Might Ride. 26 min. 1976. A man must choose between the life of his thoroughbred brood mare and that of her unborn foal. Grades 7-12. (6)

Luke Was There. 35 min. 1976. Depicts the frustration a boy experiences when placed in a shelter home. Grades 4-9. (5)

Monkey and the Crab. 14 min. 1976. Relates the Japanese folktale of a lazy monkey who uses smooth talk and force to steal the industrious crab's food. Grades K-3. (2)

Rosedale: The Way It Is. 57 min. 1976. Documents the hostility of Whites toward the presence of Blacks in Rosedale, New York. Grades 9-12. (4)

What Are Values? 9 min. 1977. Introduces values clarification as a methodology for making difficult decisions. Grades 5-10. (1)

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Materials and Equipment

Reading Systems—Buyer Beware

This feature is prepared by P. Kenneth Komoski, executive director, EPIE (Educational Products Information Exchange) Institute. For further information about materials and equipment, write to EPIE Institute, 475 Riverside Drive, New York 10027.

Systems is the new "in" word in reading. Recently a former teacher who taught reading for many years commented on the "new reading systems" in the *Maine Times:*

They call it the Basic Reading System. It's geared to teaching six-year-olds 350 reading words after 180 days of study, *almost two words a day* [emphasis added].

There are about a dozen of these systems. They are published for one reason only: profit. Money, that is. The profit to the pupil is minimal. . . . Each publisher makes extravagant claims for his system, his fervor bordering on the religious. Actually there is very little difference in these systems.

It's great to see a classroom teacher speaking out on the controlled vocabulary of these systems. She is directly attacking their soft underbelly. Although salespeople may act as if controlled vocabulary is a new feature, it has been part of every basal series since Scott, Foresman introduced the idea in the early 1930's with Dick and Jane.

New and *easy* are key words in the language of selling, and teacher-consumers of reading materials should recognize them as just that. Another such word is *research.*

According to our teacher-critic, the teacher's guides of these series are the common vehicle for "research claims." She says, "The words 'based on recent research' or 'research has shown' are likely to occur many times." But how many teachers are going to question research claims about such a major feature as the controlled vocabulary?

Teachers simply don't have the time to check up on such claims. Consequently, salespeople for the "new" reading systems go right on referring to a research base for the use of a controlled vocabulary of "never more than two new words on a page." The fact is they are selling a publisher's version of the emperor's new clothes—unless publishers really believe that the formula of introducing only two new words on a page was based on careful research.

If so, they and the teachers they are selling to would do well to listen to Paul B. Diederich, who was present 40 years ago when Michael West argued for the use of a controlled vocabulary. Diederich, who was for many years a senior research associate at Educational Testing Service, has written:

. . . the particular standard of two new words per hundred words of text was never intended by West [who, says Diederich, hit on the idea of the controlled vocabulary in India, where he taught English as a foreign language] to apply to reading material in the student's native language. From first to last, he was talking about the teaching of English as a foreign language. For his students, the new words were really new—in the sense that these students did not know what they meant. They were not new in the sense that the students might have heard and used them every day but had not previously encountered them in print. . . . West urged this practice on the people who were writing first-year texts in foreign languages, but I never heard him apply it to basal readers in the native language.

Now this is not to say that some control of new words is not a useful strategy during the earliest stages of teaching reading in any language. But as Diederich goes on to say about West, "He never dreamed that anyone would still be counting the previously unused words after five or six years of instruction in the native language."

What is the message in this for classroom teachers? First, they should watch out for the old being marketed as "new." Second, they should question claims about "research," whether new or old. And they shouldn't fall for the "easy." Neither teaching nor learning is easy. No teacher can teach the range of learners found in the average classroom with an easy, standard formula.

Teachers should be wary of publishers' advertising and sales claims. They should examine materials without the salespeople around and should demand time to do this from the school's administration.

If a school is a member of EPIE, teachers can make use of EPIE's consumer reports on reading programs. They contain detailed analyses and teacher evaluations of reading materials used often on a day-to-day basis.

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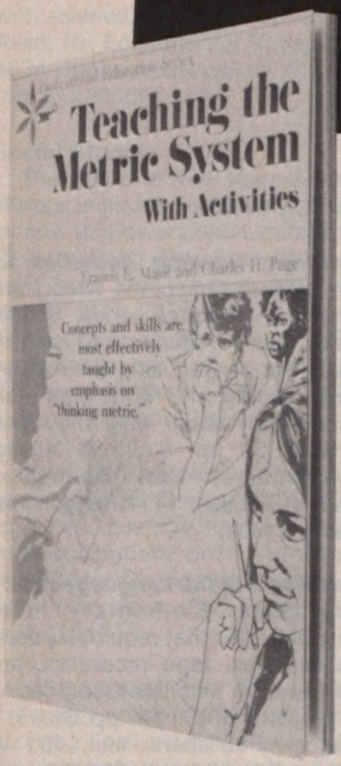
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Career Education at the Four-Year College and University Level. Pamphlet. Policy statement of American Association of State Colleges and Universities. 50¢. Publications, AASCU, One Dupont Circle, Suite 700, Washington, DC 20036.

Chicanos in Higher Education: Proceedings of a National Institute on Access to Higher Education for the Mexican American. 1976. 177 pp. $4.95. The University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque 87131.

Educational Financial Aids: A Guide to Selected Fellowships, Scholarships, and Internships in Higher Education. Lists sources available to men and women, 1977. 36 pp. $1. Quantity discounts available. American Assn. of University Women, Sales Office, 2401 Virginia Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20037.

Look Out for Yourself! Helpful Hints for Selecting a School or College. Brochure. Provides answers to questions students and prospective students ask when choosing a postsecondary educational institution. 1977. Free. Office of the Asst. Secretary for Education (Policy Communication), Room 309G, 200 Independence Ave., S.W., Washington, DC 20202.

Student Expenses 1977-78. A rundown on costs of more than 2,750 colleges and other postsecondary institutions. $4. College Entrance Examination Board, No. 31794, Box 2815, Princeton, NJ 08540.

Human Relations Day

American Potpourri: Multiethnic Books for Children and Young Adults. Includes fiction and nonfiction books for preschool through young adult readers. 1977. 12 pp. 35¢. Cat. No. HE 19.128:AM3. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

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Teacher-Designed Reform in In-Service Education. Of special value to teachers anticipating involvement and decision-making, such as planning and policy board work, in the Teacher Centers authorized in the Education Amendments of 1976 to Title V of the Higher Education Act of 1965. 1977. 70 pp. Free. Natl. Foundation for the Improvement of Education, NEA, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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Spelling Games and Puzzles for Junior High. Designed to allow Thermo-fax masters to be made from its contents. 1976. 82 pp. $5.95. Fearon-Pitman Publishers, Inc., 6 Davis Dr., Belmont, CA 94002.

Structuring Reading Activities for English Classes. One of the *Theory and Research into Practice* series. Strategies for motivating students to read an assigned text, for focusing their attention while reading, and for helping them think coherently about what they have read. 1976. 30 pp. $1.95 ($1.40 for NCTE members). Natl. Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801.

Using Media in the Language Arts: A Source Book. Elementary level. Presents activities that require students to use cameras, tape recorders, and other equipment and lists resources for media projects. 1977. 123 pp. $3.95. F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 401 W. Irving Park Rd., Itasca, IL 60143.

Mainstreaming

Mainstreaming Exceptional Children: How To Make It Work. Discusses procedures that satisfy the intent of the mainstreaming law with a minimum of disruption. 1976. 165 pp. $3.95. Boxwood Press, 183 Ocean View Blvd., Pacific Grove, CA 93950.

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How To Study Mathematics. A guide for students. 1977. 31 pp. $1.50. Natl. Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1906 Assn. Dr., Reston, VA 22091.

Science with Young Children. Science experiences as discovery learning: practical activities, lists of equipment, and resources to help children and teachers become more involved

with science. 1977. 144 pp. $3.25. Natl. Assn. for Education of Young Children, 1834 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20009.

Social Studies

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China and America: Past and Future. Headline Series #235. 1977. 80 pp. $1.40. Quantity discounts. (Payment must accompany orders of $3 or less, plus 40¢ for postage and handling.) Foreign Policy Assn., 345 E. 46th St., New York 10017.

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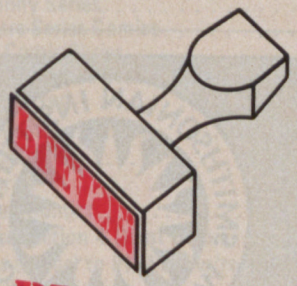

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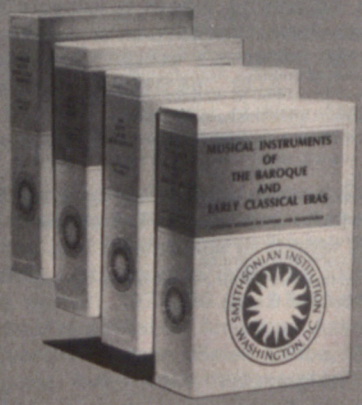

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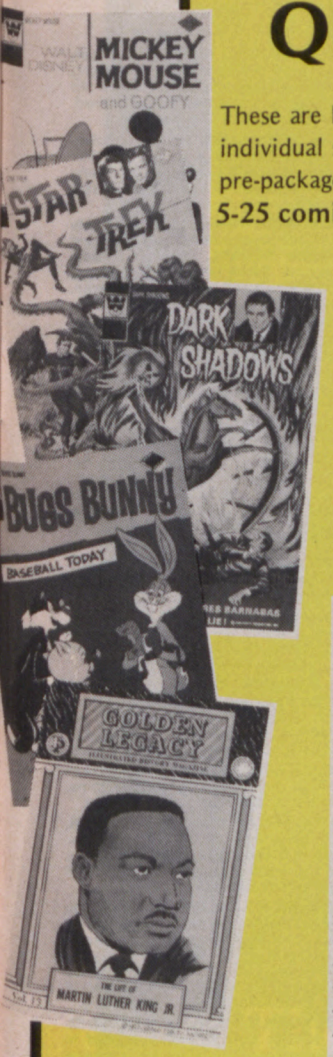

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